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MYSORE GAZETTEER

COMPILED FOR GOVERNMENT

VOLUME IV

ADMINISTRATIVE

EDITED BY

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PREFACE

THIS Volume, which forms *Volume IV Administrative*, is, as its title indicates, devoted to topics relating to the administration of the State. In the preparation of the chapters included in it, valuable assistance has been rendered by a number of high Officers of State and Departmental heads to whom thanks are due for answering enquiries or supplying the requisite information. Special acknowledgments are due to the following:—Mr. K. Chandy, B.A., formerly Revenue Commissioner in Mysore, and now retired First Member of Council; Mr. M. N. Krishna Rao, B.A., formerly Financial Secretary and now First Member of Council; Mr. C. S. Balasundaram Iyer, B.A., formerly Inspector-General of Education in Mysore, and now Second Member of Council; Mr. K. Matthan, B.A., formerly Director of Public Instruction in Mysore and now Third Member of Council; Mr. V. Subramanya Iyer, B.A., formerly Registrar of the Mysore University; Dr. Muhammad Usmon, L.M.S., retired Senior Surgeon and Sanitary Commissioner in Mysore; Mr. B. Puttaiya, B.A., Superintendent, Government Printing in Mysore; and Mr. G. H. Krumbiegel, F.R.H.S., Director of Horticulture in Mysore.

BANGALORE,
26th October 1929.

C. HAYAVADANA RAO,
Editor.

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THE MYSORE GAZETTEER

VOLUME IV

ADMINISTRATIVE

CHAPTER I.

GENERAL AND POLITICAL.

SECTION 1.—SYSTEM OF ADMINISTRATION.

(a) *From the Earliest Times to 1831.*

REGARDING the ancient form of Government some information may be gathered from inscriptions, but not in much detail. The earliest are the Edicts of Asoka discovered by Mr. Rice, in which we find the Ayaputa or prince in charge of a provincial government, assisted by *mahāmātras*. As Dr. Bühler remarks, "the position of a prince, sent out as a viceroy, was probably not an independent one. The distrust and the jealousy of the father and sovereign no doubt surrounded him with high officials, possessing almost, if not quite, the same powers, in order to watch, and, if necessary, to check him." The prince and the *mahāmātras* issue their orders to the *mahāmātras* of Isila, which possibly represents Sidda in Siddapura, where the inscriptions were found. As to the functions of the *mahāmātras*, we have the following statements in the seventh and eighth Pillar

Under the
Mauryas, 3rd
Century B.C.

Edicts: "I have also appointed dhamma-mahāmātras whose duty it is to occupy themselves with all matters of charity, and their duties extend to men of all creeds, whether ascetics or householders The mahāmātras will deal with the various classes in accordance with their several requirements. But the dhamma-mahāmātras will occupy themselves both with those, and with all others." They were, in short, high superintending officials, whose duty it was to see that the King's orders and wishes were carried out. The official formula, in addressing the subordinate authorities, began by wishing them health, and went on to say, "the Beloved of the Gods (that is, the King) commands thus." The edicts were written out by a *lipikara* or scribe, a representative no doubt of the army of clerks attached to all public offices, and his making use in one place of Kharoshti characters, which are met with only in the extreme north-west of the Punjab, seems to imply that the office hands were liable to transfer to very distantly removed stations.

Under the
Sātavāhanas,
1st and 2nd
Century A.D.

The next inscriptions in point of date are those of Sātavāhanas. Sātakarni, in making his grant, conveys his orders to the *mahāvalabham rajjukam*. The *rajjukas* were officials who are frequently mentioned in Asoka's edicts. In the seventh and eighth Pillar Edicts, he says:—"I have appointed numerous (officers) over the people, each having his own jurisdiction, that they may spread abroad my instructions, and develop (my wishes). I have also appointed *rajjukas* over hundreds of thousands of living beings, and they have been ordered by me to instruct the faithful." In the fourth Edict, the King refers to their appointment in a singularly quaint manner, as follows:—"Just as, after confiding a child to a skilful nurse, a man feels secure, saying to himself, 'a skilful nurse sets himself to take care of my child,' so have I

appointed these *rajjukas* for the happiness and prosperity of my subjects." (See *I. A.*, xviii. 9, 307; also *E. I.*, II, 253, 271.). Dr. Bühler has shown that *rajjuka* literally means "the holder of the rope," (*Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenlandischen Gesellschaft*, xlvii. 466), that is, his proper duty was the measurement of the field with a view to the revenue settlement. And it is curious to learn that this title is represented by the modern Sheristadar, a corruption of the Persian *sar-i rishtadār*, he who holds the end of the rope. (J. Beames, *J.R.A.S.*, July 1895, p. 661). The *sheristadar* is generally the chief Indian official in a Commissioner's or Collector's office and popularly supposed, in other sense, to be the one who pulls the strings. In the taluks of Mysore he is next to the Amildar, having charge of the treasury and the revenue accounts. From this we may perhaps infer the standing of the *rajjukas*, and trace the identity of Indian executive appointments from the earliest to the latest times.

The Talgunda inscription assigned to about 450 A.D. mentions that Kākhustha had under him feudatories. (*E.C.* VII, Shikarpur 176). The eldest son of the King was designated the Yuvarāja. Kākustha had himself been Yuvarāja. (*I.A.*, VI, 23). They are described as *pratīkrita-svādhyāya-charchāpara*, i.e., "studying the requital (of good and evil) as their sacred text." (*E.I.* VI, 17; but see *E.I.* VIII, 148 where the phrase is differently rendered).

Under the
Kadambas,
3rd to 6th
Century A.D.

The Gangas ruled over the country called Gangavādi 36,000, with Kolar as their capital in the first instance and then Talkād. The Nandi plates of Mādhava II, assigned to the 3rd Century A.D., but which are of doubtful authenticity, suggest that the kingdom was divided into *nāḍus* (*Morasunāḍu*, etc.), each *nāḍu*

Gangas, 2nd
to 11th
Century A.D.

containing a number of villages. (*M.A.R.* 1913-14, Paras 54-55). For example, the *Badagadhe-nādu* referred to in the Kūdlūr plates of Hari Varma (3rd Century A.D.) is spoken of as a Three-Hundred. (*M.A.R.* 1920-21, Para 37). Though the genuineness of these plates also has been doubted, the particulars as to territorial divisions mentioned in it need not necessarily be disbelieved. The Kings were styled Mahārājādhirāja bhatāra, and Permādi. (*Ibid* Para 58). The Manne plates of Rājamalla (dated in *Saka* 750=828 A.D.) describe the King as *Mahārājādhirāja-paramēśvara*. (*M.A.R.* 1909-1910, Para 58). The Kūdlūr plates of Mārasimha, dated 962 A.D., undoubtedly genuine in character, describe the Ganga king, however, as a mere *mandalika* (Ganga-mandalika and Mandalika Trinētra) and suggest that the Gangavādi consisted of several provinces from out of which small *nādus* were carried out:—Gangavādi, a number of 6,000 (Pūnātu 6,000) and other larger provinces; then smaller *nādus* (such as Badagere 300) in each of these; and then the villages in each such *nādu*. (*M.A.R.* 1921, Para 53). In Śrīpurusha's reign, we have mention of the following:—Kerekunda 300, Eleganur-nād 70, the Āvanya-nād 30, and the Ponkunda 12. (*E.C.* IX, Hoskote 86). In records, we hear of the Hovalala-nād 300 (*E.C.* X, Srinivasapur 65, Mulbagal 80) and the Ganga 6,000 (*Ibid* Mulbagal 80); and the Panne-nād, Belathurnād, the Pulvahi-nād 100 and the Mū-nād 60 and one or two others whose names are not clear. (*Ibid* Mulbagal 255). There is mention also of a Mahārājara-nād. (*Ibid* Mulbagal 228). This is probably the same as the Murāsavādi 700, whose capital was Vallur. (*E.C.* X, Chintamani 30). In another record, reference is made to Nagu-nād and Navale-nād. (*E.C.* III, Heggaddevankote 103). Ereyappa is represented as ruling over the Kagal-nād 8,000. (*Ibid* Heggaddevankote 92). Balinga on his marriage received from the Rāshtrakūta King

Amōghavarsha III as dowry the Beligere 3,006, the Belvola 3,000, the Kisukad 70 and Bage-nād 70, all provinces in the Dharwar, Belgaum and Bijapur Districts. In the Manne plates of Rājamalla, Gangavādi 96,000 is represented as having subordinate to it four feudatories (*Samantas*). (*M.A.R.* 1909-1910, Para 58). The King's son was termed Yuvarāja and he ruled over a part of the kingdom. Occasionally he wielded the sovereign powers. In one record, for example, Mārasimha is described, though only a Yuvarāja, as ruling the centre (*Allhanda*) Gangamandala and decorating all the feudatories.

The Pallavas who succeeded to the territories of the Kadambas in the East and the Nolambas who succeeded them do not appear to have varied the prevailing system of administration. The prevailing territorial divisions appear to have been continued. Nolambavādi 32,000 corresponded generally with the present Chitaldrug District with the parts of the country to the north and east of it. Nolambalige 1,000 apparently formed the nucleus of this province. (*E.C.* XI, Challakere 33 and 34). Nolanbavādi 32,000 is found mentioned for the first time in a record dated in 920 A.D. (*E.C.* XI, Jagalur 29). The Nolambas appear to have had a simpler system, which should have suited fairly well their limited requirements. Under the King (ruling a 6,000 country) were governors of *nādus* (for example *Savandinādu* 70). The villagers were *mahājanas* who enjoyed apparently larger powers of local administration. Thus, they had the right to gift away land to successful rescuers of cattle.

Pallavas,
8th to 9th
Century ;
Nolambas,
9th to 10th
Century A.D.

The administrative system of the Chōlas was a more elaborate one. After the overthrow of the Gangas by 1004 A.D., they dominated the south and east of the country for over a century. A full description of their

Chōlas,
10th to 12th
Century A.D.

system will be found in Vol. II of this work under *Chōlas*. It ought to suffice here to state that the Chōla Empire was divided into a number of provinces called *mandalam*s; these again into *vala nādus*, or districts; these again into *nādus* or taluks; and these finally into villages, variously called *ūr*, *grāmas*, *pur*as, *mangal*as, etc. A number of villages formed a *Chaturvēdimangalam*. The King—the Chōla King was really an Emperor—was at the head of the administration. His son was co-regent in the administration. The King was, however, only the political and military head, guiding the administration and directing the military and foreign departments. There were about him, assisting and advising him, five great assemblies of persons, which consisted of ministers, priests, generals, envoys and spies. (According to another authority the five assemblies are thus made up:—*mahājanas*, *Brāhmanas*, *medical men*, *astrologers*, and *ministers*). There were besides eight other bodies of persons, *viz.*, accountants, artisans, nobles, guards, commercial men, commanders of elephant forces, infantry and cavalry. Epigraphic records refer to all these different kinds of advisers of the King. (See K. V. Subramania Iyer, *Historical Sketches*, 314-15). The Chōla kings do not appear to have concerned themselves with the direct administration of the country. The latter was generally decentralized and was really in the hands of the following assemblies:—

- (1) The district assembly, (2) The members of commerce,
- (3) The village assembly and (4) the assembly of the principal residents of the village.

Of these, the third appears to have been composed entirely of Brāhmanas. Its jurisdiction generally extended over the whole of a *Chaturvēdimangalam*, which consisted of a central village with a number of smaller villages and hamlets attached to it, called *padāgai* and *Cheri*,

together with the streets in it, all being included within a radius of about 10 miles. The Assembly was divided into a number of bodies which look after a specified part of the local administration. Among these were the following according to the inscriptions of the period :—

(1) Annual Supervision Committee; (2) Garden Supervision Committee; (3) Tank Supervision Committee; (4) Field Supervision Committee; (5) Gold Supervision Committee; (6) Ward Supervision Committee; (7) the Panchavāra Committee and (8) the Committee for the Administration of Justice.

Admission to these different Committees was regulated by election for which elaborate rules are known to have existed and been enforced. The qualifications for membership were high, and included ownership of property in the village and knowledge of the *Vēda*. The rules appear to have insisted on the election of honest and honourable men with knowledge not only of the world but also of the needs of the locality. (For further details as to qualification, methods of election, etc., see Vol. II, under *Chōlas*).

Besides the above Committees, there appear to have been a few others, referred to in the lithic records of the period. Among these were:—

(1) Ganapperumakkal or Ganavāriyapperumakkal and Ālumganavāriyam; (2) Sṛī Kōyilvāriyam; (3) Grāmakāryam; (4) Anjasthlā-Sabhai; (5) Udāsivapperumakkal; and (6) Bhattar.

The first of these probably discharged magisterial functions; while the second was charged with the duty of managing the local temple and the third with that of generally supervising the administration of the village as a whole. (See K. V. Subramania Iyer, *Historical Sketches*, 326).

Under the
later
Chālukya
kings, 10th to
12th century
A.D.

Under the later Chālukyan rule (10th to 12th century A.D.), the country was divided into different provinces, such as Banavāsi, Santalige, Nolambavādi, Gangavādi, etc. About the middle of the 11th century, the administrative chain was thus made up:—

At the head was the Emperor, who was styled *Srīprithvi Vallabha Mahārājādhirājaparamēśvara*, or as he was sometimes described as *Samastabhuvanāśraya, Srīprativullabha Mahārājādhirāja, Rājaparamēśvara Paramabhattachāraka, Chakravarti*, etc. He is described as primarily engaged in extending the kingdom on all sides, *i.e.*, engaged incessantly in war and conquest. War and conquest were, indeed, mediæval facts with him. Under him, as Viceroy, was his son, who is given the Ganga titles, and set to rule over the old Ganga and other territories—Gangavādi ninety-six thousand, including the Banavāsi Twelve Thousand, Santalige Thousand, and the Nolambavādi Thirty-two Thousand with the royal city of Balagāmi (Banavāsi) as his capital. (*E.C.* VII, Shikarpur, 83). He is described as engaged in *dushta nigrāha* and *sishta paripālana*, *i.e.*, punishing the wicked and protecting the obedient which might be taken as the equivalent of the sonorous Virgilian maxim which sums up the principle of Roman Provincial Administration, *Pacere Subjectis et debellare Superbos*. (To spare those who are cast down and to subdue those who have set themselves up). Under or assisting him was the *Mahāmātya*, or Chief Minister who was chief of the *Karanas*, *i.e.*, those who exercised the royal authority. This *Mahāmātya* apparently held charge of the local administration of Banavāsi Twelve Thousand, in which was situated the capital of the Viceregal Province. He is said to have possessed the three powers of ruling, counsel and energy. He is described as the *pramukha karana* and as bearing the burden of the whole kingdom. In other words, he was apparently invested with the chief executive power in it. Under him were the *Mahāmandalēśvaras* who are described as “dwellers at his (the Emperor’s) lotus feet and at the lotus feet” of his son, the Viceroy, and under them were the *Nālgavundas*, who held charge of the sub-divisions, such as Jaddalige Seventy, etc. Under each *Nālgavunda*, were *Urgavundas* who held charge of villages. These correspond to *pattanasvāmī* or Town Mayor

or Chief Magistrate of a city or town. The *Ūr-gavūda* was sometimes called the *Ūr-oḍeya*. He put down, in his jurisdiction, all disorder and maintained the public peace. When required, he organized petty forces (local militia) and turned out against cattle raiders, etc., and beat them back. If he fell in the raid (see *E.C.* VII, Shikarpur 83), a land grant was made in favour of his wife and children and often-times his services were commemorated by the setting up of a *virgal* or hero-slab, which not infrequently contained picturesque details, in sculpture and in writing, of the heroic deeds wrought by him. (See *Ibid*). There were apparently, besides, in some parts of the country, superintendents called *mēl-ālike*. These were probably the *mahāmandalēsvaras* who exercised some sort of supervision or authority over ordinary *mandalēsvaras* or *mandalikas*. (See *E.C.*, Davangere 127 dated in 1123 A.D.). In making public grants in the Provinces, all the rulers responsible for its governance had to join. Such grants often took the form of villages, pieces of land, percentage of customs duties on areca-nut, betel-leaf, etc. The maintaining of these charities were left to managers of customs and to persons associated with them specially for the purpose. (Thus fifty Brāhmins are mentioned to have been associated in one case. See *E.C.*, Davangere 139 dated in 1106 A.D.).

When the Kālachurya kings overthrew the Chālukyas in Mysore, about 1162 A.D., they do not appear to have changed the local administration much. With the Provincial Governors, or rather over them, were appointed five Royal Inspectors (*Karanams*, literally those who carried out Royal orders) to see that the local Governors were free from "adultery," i.e., disloyalty. This was the more necessary, as the local Governors were chosen from among the extinct ruling houses, subordinate to a Royal Viceroy. These five *Karanams* were under the Chief Minister. They were, we are told in the record (*E.C.* VII, Shikarpur 102 dated in 1162 A.D.), "powerful as the ocean, in ministerial skill unmatched, bold as lions, able in detecting frauds" and "shone like the five senses to King Bijjala-Dēva." They were apparently itinerant

Under the
Kālachurya
Kings, 12th
Century A.D.

officers, moving with the King or independently as public business demanded.

Under the
Hoysala
kings, 11th to
14th Century
A.D.

Under the Hoysala kings, the dominion being large, the administrative charges appear to have been reorganized and modified to suit new conditions. While the gradation from lower to higher powers was kept up as in the olden days, the number of gradations seem to have been increased. Thus under the Emperor, who is described as extending the Kingdom on all sides and ruling over the country under one umbrella, *i.e.*, as Emperor, his son was appointed *Mahāmandalika* or Chief Governor, a bee at the lotus feet of his father. Under him, were other *Mandalikas*—or Governors, who in their turn are described as “dwellers at his lotus feet.” Under each *Mandalika*, there were a number of *Mahānālprabhus*, under each of whom were a number of *Nālprabhus*, under each of whom, again, were a number of *Ūr-odeyas*, who held charge of towns or villages. (See *E.C.* VII, Honnali 7 dated in 120 A.D.; also *E.C.* VII, Channagiri 72, dated in 1220 A.D.). The orders of the king and the local administration were communicated through *harikāras* or elephant-couriers, of whom there appear to have been quite a large number. Apparently elephants were used as much in the every day civil administration as in the political warfare of the period. These appear in later history, especially during the Anglo-Indian Wars of the 18th Century, as *hircarrahs*, etc. Often in inscriptions, we find the Chief General or Minister of the king in Hoysala days compared to *Sūdraka*, who, as is well known, was the royal author of *Mrichakatika* or the *Clay Cart*, which has been assigned to the 6th Century A.D. As a play-wright, he has been described, as to sharpness of characterizations, by a modern Western critic, as allied in genius to Shakespeare. The comparison may, in most cases, be an exaggeration,

but it undoubtedly indicates the ideal of excellence expected from a Minister in those days.

The Vijayanagar Kings do not appear to have varied the administrative system they found in the vast territory that passed under their control about the middle of the 14th century. The Kingdom was divided into a number of *Mandalas*, these again into a number of *mahārājyas* or *rājyas*; these again into *sīmas* and these into a number of *ūrus* or villages. Thus Penukonda gave name to *mahārājya* (Devulapalli plates of Innadi-Narasimha, *E.I.* VIII, 85) whereas Channapatna is called a *rājya* in certain records. Similarly Mulbagal gave its name to a *Rājya* and the Hoysala country is often termed a *Rājya* in the records of the period. The older sub-division of *nāḍa* seems to have continued, the *Rājyas* being sometimes described as composed of such and such *nāḍus*, without the mention of the *sīma* in which they were included. Thus *Kamnāḍu* is described as a sub-division of Pratāpagirirājya in the Srisailam plates of Virūpāksha III dated in 1466 A.D. (*E.I.* XV, 25). Abdur Razaak has described the daily administrative routine of the Vijayanagar King as he found it in 1443 A.D.:—

Under the
Vijayanagar
Kings, 14th to
16th Century
A.D.

On the right hand of the palace of the Sultān there is the *divān-khāna*, or minister's office, which is extremely large, and presents the appearance of a *chihal-sutan*, or forty-pillared hall; and in front of it there runs a raised gallery, higher than the stature of a man, thirty yards long and six broad, where the records are kept and the scribes are seated. In the middle of the pillared hall, a *eunuch*, called a *Danāṭik*, sits alone upon a raised platform, and presides over the administration; and below it the mace-bearers stand, drawn up in a row on each side. Whoever has any business to transact advances between the lines of mace-bearers, offers some trifling present, places his face upon the ground, and standing upon his legs again,

represents his grievance. Upon this, the Danāik issues orders, founded upon the rules of justice prevalent in that country, and no other person has any power of remonstrance. When the Danāik leaves the chamber, several coloured umbrellas are borne before him, and trumpets are sounded, and on both sides of his way panegyrists pronounce benedictions upon him. Before he reaches the king, he has to pass through seven gates, at which porters are seated, and as the Danāik arrives at each door, an umbrella is left behind, so that on reaching the seventh gate the Danāik enters alone. He reports upon the affairs of the State to the King, and, after remaining some time, returns. His residence lies beyond the palace of the King. On the left hand of the palace, there is the mint. Opposite the mint is the office of the Prefect of the City, to which it is said 12,000 policemen are attached; and their pay, which equals each day 12,000 *fanams*, is derived from the proceeds of the brothels. The splendour of those houses, the beauty of the heart-ravishers, their blandishments and ogles are beyond all description. It is best to be brief on the matter. The revenues of the brothels, as stated before, go to pay the wages of the policemen. The business of these men is to acquaint themselves with all the events and accidents that happen within the seven walls and to recover everything that is lost, or that may be abstracted by theft; otherwise they are fined. Thus, certain slaves which my companion had bought, took to flight, and when the circumstance was reported to the Prefect, he ordered the watchmen of that quarter where the poorest people dwelt to produce them or pay the penalty; which last they did, on ascertaining the amount. Such are the details relating to the city of Bijanagar and the condition of its sovereign. (Sir H. Elliot, *Hist. Ind.*, IV. 107, 111).

Karnātic
Bijapur.

When from the conquests of Rān-dulha Khan, the Bijapur general, Pargānās had been formed, he arranged the subordinatē divisions of *samats*, *tarujs*, *mauje*, *mujare* of each Pargāna, and appointed Jamadars or Collectors. In the time of the Rāyals, the accountants had been called *Samprati*, but the Mahrattas introduced the

different offices of Dēshpande, Dēshkulkarni, Sar-Nād-Gaud, Dēshmuki and Kanungo, by whom the accounts of the country were kept ; they also appointed Sheristedars to all the pargānas. When *jāgīrs* were granted to Killedars and Mansubdārs by the Sarkar, the revenue accounts of the districts for the last years were previously examined and the new revenue rated annually on the *jāgīr* to be granted. In fixing the revenue thus established, the *ināms* or free gift lands, land customs, etc., were discontinued or deducted, and the net revenue, more or less than the former, ascertained by means of the Jamadars.

When the Moguls formed the Suba of Sira, 12 pargā- Sirā.
nas were annexed to it, and the other districts were permitted to be still held by the Pālegārs on condition of paying an annual tribute. Officers for collecting and managing the revenues were appointed in the amāni districts only ; at the same time, the offices of Dēshmuki, Dēshkulkarni and Sar-Nād-Gaud were formed into one office. Dēshpandes, Majmundars, Kanungoyas, and Kulkarnis were maintained according to the forms long established in the dominions of Bijapur. The Dēshmuk was to settle the accounts with the patels ; the Dēshpande to check the accounts of the karnams ; the Kanunga to register the official regulations, and to explain the ordinances and regulations to the inhabitants and public officers to prevent errors or mistakes. In the Majmundar's office, the accounts of the settlement were made out and issued.

The accounts of all kinds were anciently kept in Kannada, but after the Mahratta chiefs attained power in the Karnātic, many Deshastas or natives of their countries followed them, who introduced their language and written character into the public accounts. Even in the *samasthāns* of the Pālegārs, where the revenue

and military accounts had been kept in Kannada alone, some of them, beginning then to entertain large bodies of horse, employed Mahratta accountants to check the pay accounts in that language for the satisfaction of the horsemen of that nation. After the Moguls came into the country and established the Suba of Sira, the Persian language came into use.

Under the
Rajas of
Mysore.

In the south, in the growing kingdom of Mysore, about the year 1701, Chikka-Dēva-Rāja, it is stated, distributed the business of government into 18 *cutcheries* or departments, probably from having learned from his ambassadors to Aurangzīb that such was the practice at the Imperial Court. These departments were:—

1. *Nirūpa chāvadi* or the secretary's department, to which he appointed one *darōga* or superintendent, and three *daftars*, registers or books of record. Everything was recorded in each of the three in exactly the same manner; all letters or orders despatched, to be previously read to the Rāja.

2. *Lekkada chāvadi*, whose business it was to keep the general accounts of revenue, treasury, and disbursements, civil and military; this seems to approach our office of accountant-general.

3 & 4. *Ubhaika vichāra*, or two-fold inquiry. He divided his whole possessions into two portions: that north of the Cauvery he called the Patna Hobli; the south of the Cauvery was named the Mysore Hobli; to each of these *cutcheries* he appointed one *divan* and three *daftars*.

5. *Shime Kandāchār*; it was the duty of this *cutcherry* to keep the accounts of provisions and military stores, and all expenses of the provincial troops, including those connected with the maintenance of the garrisons; one *bakshi* and three *daftars*.

6. *Bākal Kandāchār* (*bākal*, a gate or portal); it was the duty of this department to keep the accounts of the troops attending at the *porte*, that is to say, the army, or disposable force.

7. *Sunkadachāvadī*, or duties and customs; it was their duty to keep the general accounts of customs levied within his dominions.

8. *Pom chāvadī* in every taluk where the sunka was taken; there was another or second station, where a further sum equal to half the former amount was levied; for this duty he established a separate cutcherry.

9. *Tundēya chāvadī* (*tunde*, half, *i.e.*, half of the pom) this was a further fourth of the first duty, levied in Seringapatam only.

10 & 11. In the *Ubhaika vichāra* were not included the Srirangapatna and Mysore Ashtagrama (eight townships): for each of these he had a separate cutcherry; besides the business of revenue, they were charged with the provisions and necessaries of the garrison and palace.

12. *Benne chāvadī*, the butter department, the establishment of cows, both as a breeding stud and to furnish milk and butter for the palace, the name was changed by Tipu to *Amrit Mahal*, and then to *Keren Barik*. (*Amrit*, the Indian nectar, *Keren Barik*, an Arabic term, may be translated almost verbally *Cornu Copia*).

13. *Patnada chāvadī*; this cutcherry was charged with the police of the metropolis, the repairs of the fortifications and public buildings.

14. *Behin chāvadī*; the department of expedition, or the post-office: the business espionage belonged also to this department.

15. *Samukha chāvadī*; the officers of the palace, domestics, and personal servants of every description belonged to the charge of this cutcherry.

16. *Dēvasthān chāvadī*; kept the accounts of the lands allotted to the support of religious establishments, the daily rations of food to the Brāhmans, lighting the pagodas, etc.

17. *Kabbīnada chāvadī*; iron cutcherry: this article was made a monopoly, and its management was committed to a separate cutcherry.

18. *Hogesoppin chāvadī*, the tobacco department; another monopoly by the government, which in Seringapatam was the exclusive tobacco merchant.

It is certain that the revenues were realized with great regularity and precision, and this Rājā is stated to have established a separate treasury to provide for extraordinary and unexpected disbursements, of which he himself assumed the direct custody. It was his fixed practice, after the performance of his morning ablutions, to deposit two bags (thousands) of pagodas in this treasury from the cash despatched from the districts, before he proceeded to break his fast. If there were any delay in bringing the money, he also delayed his breakfast, and it was well known that this previous operation was indispensable. By a course of rigid economy and order, and by a widely extended and well-organized system of securing for himself the great mass of plunder obtained by his conquests, he had accumulated a treasury from which he obtained the designation of Navakōti Nārāyana, or the lord of nine crores (of pagodas), and a territory producing a revenue calculated to have been Kanthiraya pagodas 13,23,571.

The method by which he raised the revenue is thus described:—The sixth was the lawful share of the crop, for which the Rājā received his equivalent in money; and he was unwilling to risk the odium of increasing this proportion in a direct manner. He therefore had recourse to the law of the *shāstras*, which authorized him, by no very forced construction, to attack the husbandman by a variety of vexatious taxes, which should compel him to seek relief by desiring to compound for their abolition by a voluntary increase of the landed assessment: and this is the arrangement which generally ensued; although, from the great discontent excited by the taxes, the compromise was generally made on the condition of excepting some one or more of the most offensive, and proportionally increasing those which remained. But the Rājā, with that profound knowledge of human nature which distinguished all his measures, exempted from these new imposts all the lands

which were allotted to the provincial soldiery in lieu of pay, according to the ordinary practice of the smaller Hindu States and thus neutralized, in some degree, the opposition to the measure, and ensured the means of eventual compulsion. Subjoined is the detail of these taxes :—

(1) *Mane terige*, or house-tax.

(2) *Hul hana*, a tax upon the straw produced on the ground which already paid *kandāya*, or the land-tax on the pretence that a share of the straw, as well as of the grain, belonged to government.

(3) *Dēva Rāy utta*—utta is literally loss, the difference of exchange on a defective coin. *Dēva Rāj*, on the pretence of receiving many such defective coins, exacted this tax as a reimbursement; this was now permanently added to the raiyats' payments. It was different according to the coins in use in the several districts, and averaged about two per cent.

(4) *Bergi*—a patel (for example) farmed his village, or engaged for the payment of a fixed sum to the government; his actual receipts from the raiyats fell short of the amount, and he induced them to make it up by a proportional contribution. The name of such a contribution is *bergi*, and the largest that had ever been so collected was now added, under the same name, to the *kandāya* of each raiyat.

(5) *Yeru sunka*—*sunka* is properly a duty of transit on goods or grain; *yeru*, a plough. The raiyat, instead of carrying his grain to where a transit duty is payable, sells it in his own village. The *yeru sunka* was a tax of one to two gold *fanams* on each plough, as an equivalent for the tax which would have been paid if the grain had been exported.

(6) *Jāti mānya*, a tax upon the heads of those castes (*Jogi*, *Jangam*, etc.), who do not come within the general scope of Hindu establishments, and form separate communities which occasionally oppose the Brāhmanical rule. On every occasion of marriage, birth, or law-suit, or quarrel, a certain fine was levied on each house concerned as parties or judges, and a chief of each caste was made responsible for the collection.

(7) *Magga kandāya* or loom-tax.

- (8) *Kutike terige*, a tax on fornication.
- (9) *Madive terige*, a tax upon marriage.
- (10) *Angadi pattadi*, or shop-tax.
- (11) *Angadi passera*, a tax upon the moveable booths which are set up daily in the middle of the bazaar streets.
- (12) *Kāvadi terige* (kavadi is the name of a bullock saddle) a tax upon bullocks kept for hire.
- (13) *Marike* (selling), a tax upon the purchase and sale of cattle.
- (14) *Uppin māl*, a tax upon the manufacture of inland salt, produced by lixiviating saline earths.
- (15) *Ubbe kānike*—*ubbe* is the kettle or vessel made use of by washermen to boil and bleach their cloths; this was a tax on each kettle.
- (16) *Kuri terige*, a tax of a certain sum per cent on flocks of sheep.
- (17) *Pāshwara* (Pasha is a fisherman, a net).
- (18) *Gida gaval*, a tax upon wood for building, or fuel brought in from the forests.
- (19) *Gulavina pammu*. (Gula is the name of a plough-share). This is a separate tax on that instrument, exclusively of the plough-tax, No 5, which is professed to be a tax on the alienation of grain.
- (20) *Terad bāyalu* (opening a door).

In a country and a state of society where window-glass was unknown, this was a most ingenious substitute for the window-tax. The husbandman paid it, as expressed by the name, for the permission to open his door. It was, however, levied only on those made of planks, and not on the common bamboo door of the poorer villagers. The whole system is stated to have been at once unfolded, with intimation that it would be gradually introduced according to circumstances; but the commotions which it produced, by leading to measures of extreme severity, precipitated its total and abrupt introduction.

One of the earliest measures of Chikka-Dēva-Rāja's reign had been to compel the dependent Wodeyars and

Pālegars, who, like his own ancestors, had commenced the career of ambition by affecting in their respective districts to be addressed by the title of *Rāja*, publicly to renounce that assumption of independence, to disclaim the local prerogatives of punishment and confiscation without previous authority from the *Rāja*, and to revert to their original character of obedient officers of the government. The object was aided by first inviting, and then compelling, them to fix their residence at Seringapatam; by assigning to them offices of honour about the *Rāja's* person, and gradually converting them from rebellious chieftains into obedient courtiers.

In the Bednur territory, the west of the country, the most distinguished ruler was Sivappa-Nāyak, who reigned from 1648 to 1670. His *shist* or land assessment, and *prahar patti* or rules for collecting the *halat* on areca-nut, etc., are frequently referred to in proof of his financial skill, and he is said to have framed a scale of expenditure, including every contingency for each day in the year, for the Srīngēri matha. Bednur.

During twelve successive years, he caused one field of each description of land, in every village, to be cultivated on his own account, and an accurate record kept of the seed sown, the expense of culture, and the quantity and value of the produce. He then struck averages of the produce and prices, and taking the value of one *khandaga* (of 50 seers) at one *fanam*, and the Sarkar share as one-third of the gross produce, fixed the rates, land being divided into five classes, with two rates for each class.

Gardens were measured with a rod, the length of the stone steps at the Ikkēri Aghōrēsvara dēvasthān (18 feet 6 inches, English, exactly). This rod was the space called *daya* allowed for one tree. The *shist* was fixed on 1,000 such *dayas* at various rates. These are not

given, but they appear to have varied from 7 to 25 Bahadūri *pagōdas*.

The *shist* continued for thirty-nine years from 1660. The following additions were afterwards made :—In 1700, one anna in the pagoda, called *dasoha*, by Chinnammāji, for the support of an establishment for providing food gratis to all who applied. In 1736, one fanam four annas per pagoda, called *pagudi*, by Chikka-Sōmasēkhara, when the Moguls threatened an invasion. In 1753, one fanam four annas per pagoda, called *patti*, by Basappa-Nāyak, to pay the Mahratta *chout*.

Under the Basavapatna chiefs, Bedar offered higher rents for some villages than were paid by the old gaudas, who were Kurubar, which were accepted, which ended in the raiyats at length agreeing to pay an addition to the Kulavana of from two to six fanams in the pagoda. This was the origin of *birada*, which is found in the east of the Shimoga District.

Haidar Ali.

Such was the system before Haidar Ali Khān; when he had subjugated the ancient Pālegārs, he again reinstated several of them on condition of paying an annual tribute, and he followed generally the regulations formerly established, and the peculiar customs and laws of the different provinces. But he was at all times accessible to complaints, and never failed to pursue to its source the history of an irregular demand, and to recover it with additional fines from the exactor. It is true that the amount was never returned to the complainant, but it frequently produced the dismissal of the offender; the certainty of investigation tended to restrain oppression, and as Haidar was accustomed to say, rapacity in this case was nearly as good for his subjects, and much better for himself, than a more scrupulous distribution of justice. For though he left the fiscal institutions of Chikka-Dēva-Rāja as he found them, he added to the established

revenue whatever had been secretly levied by a skilful or popular Amil and afterwards detected; this produced a progressive and regular increase, and the result of complaints gave occasional, but also tolerably regular, augmentations.

Two Brāhmans, with the title of *Harkaras*, resided in each taluk. Their duty was to hear all complaints, and to report these to the office of the revenue department. They were also bound to report all waste lands. This was found to be a considerable check to oppression and to defalcations on the revenue.

But Tipu Sultān, not approving of the old regulations, Tipu Sultān. introduced a new system through all his dominions. He divided the whole into *tukadis* of five thousand pagodas each, and established the following officers in each tukadi:—One Amildar, one sheristedar, three gumastas, one tarafdardar, six atthavane peons, to each taraf, one golla (or headman) to seal and keep money, one shroff and one munshi. To twenty or thirty tukadis was attached an Asuf cutcherry: the official establishment of each of them was—first and second Asufs, two sheristas, two gumastas with five men each, forty peons, one shroff, one munshi, one mashalchi to attend the office, one Persian sheristedar, and some gumastas to keep the accounts in Persian. In this manner, an entire new system of management was introduced. Mr. Sadik, the President of the Asuf cutcherry, circulated such new orders as were necessary, under the signature and seal of the Sultān, to the Head Asufs of the Revenue Department, which they communicated to Amildars under them, and these sent them to the Tarafdars with directions to have them notified throughout their districts. He dispensed with the Harkaras appointed by Haidar, and this measure of economy contributed much to the oppression of the people.

The accounts of revenues were made out in the Kannada character by the tarafdars; fair copies of which they communicated to the Amildars in whose office they were translated into Marāthi, and a copy of each preserved by the sheristedars in the Kannada and Marāthi languages. A third set was kept in Persian.

Wilks gives details regarding what Tipu Sultān in his memoirs styles his “incomparable inventions and regulations,” which refer to the military, naval and commercial Departments.

The *commercial regulations* were founded on the basis of making the sovereign, if not the sole, the chief merchant of his dominions; but they underwent the most extraordinary revolutions. On his accession, he seems to have considered all commerce with European, and particularly with the English, as pregnant with danger in every direction. Exports were prohibited or discouraged; first, because they augmented to his own subjects the price of the article; second, because they would afford to his neighbours the means of secret intelligence; and third, because they would lift the veil of mystery which obscured the dimensions of his power. Imports were prohibited, because they would lessen the quantity of money, and thereby impoverish the country—propositions which may indicate the extent of his attainments in political economy; and such was the mean adulation by which he was surrounded, that domestic manufactures of every kind were stated to be in consequence rapidly surpassing the foreign, and a turban of Burhampoor would be exhibited and admired by the unanimous attestation of all around him as the manufacture of Shahar Ganjam. It was under the influence of this utter darkness in commercial and political economy that in 1784 he ordered the eradication of all the pepper vines of the maritime districts, and merely reserved those of inland

growth to trade with the true believers from Arabia. The increase of this article of commerce became, some years afterwards, an object of particular solicitude, but it is uncertain whether the prohibition of growing red pepper or chilli was to be considered as a commercial regulation, or to increase the growth of black pepper, as a medical regimen, or as a compound of both motives. It is a general opinion in the south of India that the free use of red pepper has a tendency to generate cutaneous eruptions, and the Sultān certainly prevented its entering his harem for six months; whether in that period he did not find the ladies improve in the smoothness of their skin, or was influenced by other causes, he withdrew the prohibition of culture about a year after it had been promulgated.

From the personal reports of the vakils who accompanied the hostages to Madras, his attention was called to a proposition, however strange, yet stated to be generally admitted among the most enlightened persons at Madras, that the power not only of the English Company but of the English King, was founded in a material degree on commercial prosperity; and the Sultān devised an extensive plan for a similar increase of power; still, however, pursuing the principles which he conceived to be sanctioned by the example of the India Company, of combining the characters of merchant and sovereign. In a long and laborious code of eight sections, he established a Royal Board of nine Commissioners of Trade, with seventeen foreign and thirty home factories in the several Districts; furnished with extensive instructions for a profitable system of exports and imports, by land and by sea, and a strict theoretical control over the receipts and disbursements; the monopolies, however, continued to be numerous, and those of tobacco, sandal wood, pepper and the precious metals were the most lucrative.

One, however, of the sections of commercial regulation is so perfectly unique that it may afford entertainment. It professes to be framed for the attractive purpose of "regulating commercial deposits, or admitting the people at large to a participation in the benefits to accrue from the trade of the country." Every individual depositing a sum not exceeding five hundred rupees was declared entitled at the end of the year to receive, with his principal, an increase of 50 per cent; above five thousand, 12 per cent, with liberty at all times and in all classes, to receive, on demand, any part of the deposit together with the proportion of interest (the word *interest* is not employed, usury being at variance with the precepts of the Koran; *forfit* is the term used) up to the day. These variations of profit, in the inverse ratio of the deposit, were probably intended to show his consideration for the small capitalist, but a project for enticing his subjects into a swindling loan was too glaring to be misunderstood. At a very early period of his Government, he had, in an ebullition of anger, extinguished the business of banker, and monopolized its dependent and most profitable trade of money-changer. He now issued an ordinance, converting the trade of money-changer and broker into a monopoly for the benefit of Government, furnishing coin for the purpose, from the treasury, to servants paid by regular salaries. It was, however, reported that the dealers kept aloof from transactions with the Government shops, that the expenses far exceeded the profits, and that it was necessary either to abandon the plan, or to enlarge it so as to embrace not only regular banking establishments but commercial speculations necessary to their prosperity. A part of this plan was therefore gradually introduced, and the funds in the hands of the money-changers were employed in advantageous loans.

The *regulations of revenue*, professing like those for

pecuniary deposits to be founded on a tender regard for the benefit of the people, contained little that was new except that the nomenclature and the institutions of Chikka-Dēva-Rāja and Haidar were promulgated as the admirable inventions of Tipu Sultān. One improvement occurs, not undeserving the modified consideration of Western statesmen who value the health or the morals of the people. He began at an early period to restrict the numbers and regulate the conduct of the shops for the sale of spirituous liquors, and he finally and effectually abolished the whole, together with the sale of all intoxicating substances, and the destruction, as far as he could effect it, of the white poppy and the hemp plant, even in private gardens. For the large sacrifice of revenue involved in this prohibition, the extinction of Hindu worship and the confiscated funds of the temples were intended to compensate, and would, if well administered, in a degree have balanced the tax on intoxicating substance; the measure commenced at an early period of his reign, and the extinction was gradual, but in 1799 the two temples within the fort of Seringapatam alone remained open throughout the extent of his dominions.

Of his system of *police*, the following extract from his official instructions may suffice :—" You must place spies throughout the whole fort and town, in the bazaars, and over the houses of the principal officers, and thus gain intelligence of every person who goes to the dwelling of another, and of what people say, etc., etc." All this Haidar effectually did, and all this Tipu Sultān only attempted. No human being was ever worse served or more easily deceived.

Of the system of administration as established by Dewan Pūrnaiya, we have an account from the pen of Col. Wilks in a report forwarded to the Government of India in 1804. It is graphically written and deserves

The Regency
of Pūrnaiya.
1799-1810
A.D.

to be reprinted. What follows is but an inadequate summary of it:—

Tipu Sultān attempted the subjugation of the Pālegārs as a whole, and the annexation of their lands to those of the Sarkar; but under the complicated system of fraud and malversation of every kind which prevailed, a large proportion of the palyams which continued to be represented at the Presence as under Sarkar management, were, by a mutual collusion of the Pālegār and Amil, held by the former; and the degree of authority which should be exercised by the latter came at length to depend on the sufferance of the Pālegār, who had often but slender claims to that title. On the restoration of the new government, there were, accordingly, few districts that did not furnish at least one claimant, possessing or pretending to the hereditary jurisdiction. The mischief was not confined to the revival of former pretensions; in some cases the patels, and in others, the officers of police, emulating the Pālegār character, and copying their history, sought to obtain the independent rule of their respective villages and the privilege of encroaching on their neighbours; and the raiyats who could afford a bribe were generally successful in procuring a false entry in the books of the District, of the quantity of land for which they paid a rent. In some districts, attempts were made by the newly-appointed Asufs or Amils to reform these latter abuses; but the frequent, and latterly the systematic assassination of such reformers terrified their successors; and these feeble and ineffectual efforts served only to confirm the most base and abject reprocation of licentiousness and corruption.

With a view to compose and encourage the well-affected, and to obviate unnecessary alarm in those of an opposite character, Pūrnaiya commenced his administration by proclaiming an unqualified remission of all balances of revenue, and the restoration of the ancient Hindu rate of assessment, on the lands, and in the sāyar.

For the maintenance of public authority, a small but select body of cavalry, infantry and peons was collected from the ruins of the Sultān's army; and for the

preservation of interior tranquility, a plan was adopted which deserves to be more particularly described. The ancient military force of the country consisted of peons or irregular foot, variously armed, but principally with matchlocks and pikes; these men, trained from their infancy according to their measure of discipline to military exercises, were most of them also cultivators of the soil, but the vacant part of the year had usually been allotted to military enterprise, and when the circumstances of their respective chiefs offered nothing more important, those restless habits led them to private depredations. It was necessary that men of these propensities should either be constantly restrained by the presence of a large military force, or be made by proper employment to feel an interest in the stability of the government; and there was no hesitation with regard to this alternative if the latter could be found to be practicable. Haidar Ali had employed large bodies of these men in his garrisons and armies and Tipu Sultān had diminished their numbers for an increase of his regular infantry; but neither Haidar nor Tipu steadily pursued any systematic plan on this important subject.

The system adopted by Dewan Pūrnaiya was to engage in the service of the State at least one individual from each family of the military to respect the ancient usages of their several districts with regard to the terms on which peons were bound to military service; in all practical cases to assign waste lands in lieu of one-half of their pay, according to the prevailing usage of ancient times. Their local duties were defined to consist in taking their easy tour of guard in the little forts or walled villages to which they were attached, and in being ready at all times to obey the calls of the officers of police. Their village pay, half in land and half in money, varied from Rs. 2 to 3 per month, with a batta of Rs. 3½ if called out from their respective districts; when

frequent reliefs, according to their domestic convenience, were always allowed. One thousand of them were prevailed on to enrol themselves for occasional service as dhooly bearers, and 450 of that number served with the Company's army; and 817 of the number performed the duty of runners to the post-office of the Government of Mysore. The number of peons thus enrolled, exclusively of those in constant pay, amounted during the two first years to 20,027 persons; and their annual pay 225,862 Kanthiraya pagodas. Better information and improved arrangements enabled Pūrnaiya in the third year to reduce the number to 17,726 and the expense to 184,718 Kanthiraya pagodas. In the fourth and fifth years, they were reduced to 15,247 persons, and the expense to 148,478 Kanthiraya pagodas; and this amount was considered by the Dewan to be nearly as low as it could with prudence be reduced.

The lineal descendants and families of several of the most powerful Pālegārs were destroyed in the general massacre of prisoners which was ordered by Tipu Sultān subsequently to the defeat of his army by Lord Cornwallis on the 15th May 1792. A few persons who preferred the chance of future commotions to a suitable and respectable provision retired from the country; but the greater proportion accepted gratuitous pensions, civil offices, or military command, on the condition of residing at Mysore, or accompanying Pūrnaiya when absent from that place. The expedient of assassinating an Amil was resorted to at an early period; but the police had even then assumed so efficient a form that all the murderers were traced and executed, and this savage experiment was not renewed.

The revolutions which had occurred at an earlier or more recent period in every district of Mysore did not alter the tenures on which the lands were held by the actual cultivators of the soil. With the exception of

Bednur and Balam, the general tenure of land may be described to be "the hereditary right of cultivation," or the right of a tenant and his heirs to occupy a certain ground so long as they continue to pay the customary rent of the district; but as in the actual condition of the people the rent could only be paid while the land was cultivated, it was apparently held that the right no longer existed than while it was thus exercised; and when the tenant ceased to cultivate, the right reverted to the Government, which was free to confer it on another.

In the provinces of Bednur and Balam, the property of the soil is vested in the landholder; and the hereditary right of succession to that property is held in as great respect as in any part of Europe. The rents being paid in money, and the officers of Government having no further interference with the raiyats than to receive those rents, the tenure of land in those provinces is highly respectable. This venerable institution of hereditary property and fixed rents is attributed to Sivappa-Nāyak, and the rent established by him is said to have continued without augmentation until the conquest by Haidar Alī; there is reason, however, to believe that under the form of contributions to defray the expense of marriages and aids on extraordinary occasions, the rent actually paid was considerably enhanced. Military service was at all times a condition of the tenure.

On the conquest of Bednur by Haidar Alī in the year 1763, he at first attempted to conciliate the principal landholders; but having discovered a conspiracy to assassinate him, supported by the landholders and headed by the chief officers of the late government and some of his own confidential servants, he proceeded, after the execution of not less than 300 persons, to disarm landholders, and to commute their military service for a money payment, holding the country in subjection by

means of an establishment of 25,000 foreign peons. This assessment of the lands continued without alteration until the peace of 1792, which deprived Tipu Sultān of one half of his territories, and suggested to him the singular expedient of compensating that loss by a proportional assessment on his remaining possessions. This measure, in Bednur as well as elsewhere, produced an effect exactly the converse of what was intended ; and added to other abundant causes, terminated in the absolute ruin of his finances.

On the establishment of the new government of Mysore, the landholders of Bednur attempted to stipulate for the restoration of the ancient rates of land-tax of Sivappa-Nāyak, and the remission of pecuniary commutation of military service established by Haidar Alī. It was ascertained in Bednur, and it is believed also in Canara, that the commutation fixed by Haidar was fair and moderate ; the rates of 1764 were accordingly adopted as the fixed land-tax.

The province of Balam was never effectually conquered until military roads were opened through the forest towns by the Honourable Major-General Wellesley in the year 1801-2. The authority of Haidar Alī, or of Tipu Sultān, over this province, was extremely precarious ; and the presence of an army was always necessary to enforce the payment of the revenue. The rates of the land-tax had accordingly fluctuated, but were fixed by the new government at a standard which appeared to be acceptable to the landholders.

Pūrnaiya appeared to have an adequate conception of the advantages, both to the raiyats and the government, of a system of hereditary landed property and fixed rents over the more precarious tenures which prevailed in other parts of Mysore. And throughout the country he generally confirmed the property of the soil to the possessors of plantations of areca, cocoa-nut and other plants

which were not annual. The exceptions to this latter measure principally applied to gardens and plantations which had gone to decay under Tīpu's administration from over assessment; and to those which had recently been formed and did not yet admit of the adjustment of a fixed rent. He showed a general disposition to accede to the proposals of individuals for fixing the rents and securing the property on every description of land; but he did not press it as a measure of government, which the raiyats habitually receive with suspicion, and held the opinion that the people must be made gradually to understand and wish for such a measure before it could be conferred and received as a benefit.

The whole of the revenue was under *amāni* management. The cultivators of dry lands paid a fixed money rent, calculated to be equal to about one-third of the crop; and those of the wet or rice lands, a payment, nominally in kind, of about one-half of the crop; but generally discharged in money at the average rates of the district, which were adjusted as soon as the state of the crop admitted of an estimate being made of its value. When the Amil and raiyats could not agree on the money-payment, it was received in kind. The precarious nature of the rice cultivation in the central and eastern parts of Mysore made it difficult to remedy this very inconvenient practice; and it was found impracticable to adjust any money rents for wet cultivation in those parts of the country. In the western range, some farmers made the experiment of a money rent for a rice-ground, but the *vāram* or payment in kind was generally found so much more profitable, by the facility it afforded of defrauding the government, that the adjustment of money rents for that description of land did not make much progress.

The civil government was divided into three departments—1st, Treasury and Finance; 2nd, Revenue; 3rd,

Miscellaneous, not included in the two former. The conduct of the military establishment was entrusted to two distinct departments, of Cavalry and Infantry. The Kandachār, or establishment of peons already described, was under the direction of a sixth separate department, partaking both of civil and military functions, in its relation to the police, the post-office, and the army. Pūrnaiya, as Dewan, personally presided over other departments.

The operations of the financial department were extremely simple. Each district had its chief golla, who keeps the key of the treasury; the sheristedar had the account, the Amil affixed his seal; and the treasury could not be opened except in the presence of these three persons. The saraf examined the coins received on account of the revenue, affixed his seal to the bags of treasure despatched to the general treasury, and was responsible for all deficiencies in the quality of the coin. A similar process, sanctioned by the sealed order of the Dewan, attended the disbursement of cash at the general treasury; and the accounts were kept in the same style of real accuracy and apparent confusion, which was usual at the time in other parts of India.

The miscellaneous department, together with several indefinite duties, comprised of two principal heads, *viz.*, first, the regulation of Rāja's establishment of state, and of his household and secondly, the custody of the judicial records.

In the administration of justice, as in every other branch of the government, due regard was given to the ancient institutions of the country, and to the doctrines of the Hindu Law. There was no separate department for the administration of justice in Mysore, with the exception of *khazis* in the principal towns, whose duties were limited to the adjustment of ecclesiastical matters among the Muhammadan inhabitants. Matters of the

same nature among the Hindus were usually determined according to *māmūl* or ancient precedent, and where there was no *māmūl*, by the doctrine of the *sāstras*, if any could be found to apply.

The Amil of each taluk superintended the department of police, and determined in the minor cases of complaint for personal wrongs; the establishment of Kandachār peons gave great efficiency to this department. Three Subadārs, for the purpose of general superintendence, had been established over the respective provinces of Bangalore, Chitaldrug and Bednūr; and these officers directed the proceedings in all important cases, criminal and civil. On the apprehensions of any persons criminally accused, the Subadār or the Amil, if he saw cause for public trial, ordered a *panchāyat*, or commission of five, to be assembled in open cutcherry; to which all inhabitants of respectability, and unconnected with the party, had the right of becoming assessors. The proceedings of this commission, in which were always included the defence of the prisoner, and the testimony of such persons as he chooses to summon, were forwarded to the Dewan, accompanied by the special report of the Subadār or Amil. In cases of no doubt, and little importance, the Dewan made his decision on the inspection of these proceedings. In matters of difficulty, or affecting the life or liberty of the prisoner, the case was brought for final hearing before the Dewan, who pronounced his sentence, assisted by the judgment of the Resident.

The administration of civil justice was conducted in a manner analogous to that of the criminal. The proclamation which announced a remission of all balances of revenue, among other benefits which it conferred on the people of Mysore, shut up the most productive source of litigation. The Amil had the power of hearing and determining, in open cutcherry, and not otherwise, all cases of disputed property not exceeding the value of

five pagodas. Causes to a larger amount were heard and determined by a *panchāyat* composed as above described and as publicity was considered to afford an important security against irregular or partial proceedings, the respectable inhabitants were encouraged to attend as assessors, according to their leisure and convenience. In cases where both the parties are Hindus, the *panchāyat* was usually composed of Hindus: where the parties were of different sects, the *panchāyat* was formed of two persons from the sect of each party, and a fifth from the sect of the defendant. In plain cases, where no difference of opinion occurred in the *panchāyat*, the Amil confirmed their award, and forwarded their proceedings to the Dewan. In cases of difficulty, or variety of opinion, the proceedings were forwarded with the report of the Subadār or Amil, to the Dewan who pronounced a final decision in communication with the Resident; or if he saw cause, ordered a re-hearing before himself. In all cases whatever, the parties had the right of appeal to the Dewan; and his frequent tours throughout the country facilitated the practice of this right.

The form of proceeding in civil cases differed materially from the practice of the courts of to-day.

Before the trial commenced, the plaintiff first, and then the defendant, were each required to give a circumstantial narrative of the transaction which involved the matter at issue; this narrative was carefully committed to writing, and twice read over to the party, who corrected what had not been properly stated; the document was then authenticated by the signature of the party, of two witnesses, and of a public officer. The correct agreement of this narrative with facts subsequently established was considered to constitute strong circumstantial evidence in favour of the party, and its disagreement with any material fact to amount to the presumption of a fictitious claim or false evidence. Testimony was received

according to the religion of the witnesses, first for the plaintiff, and then for the defendant; and the members of the *panchāyat*, or assessors, and the witnesses called for the purpose, deposed to the matters of general notoriety. The *panchāyat*, in cases of difficulty, usually prefixed to their award a few distinct propositions, explaining the grounds of their decision, which were generally drawn with considerable sagacity. But the object in which the principles of proceeding differed most essentially from those of a modern court was in the degree of credit which was given to the testimony upon oath. It appears to be in the spirit of English jurisprudence to receive as true the testimony of a competent witness until his credibility is impeached. It was a fixed rule of evidence here to suspect as false the testimony of every witness until its truth was otherwise supported. It follows, as a consequence of this principle, that the *panchāyats* were anxious for the examination of collateral facts, of matters of general notoriety, and of all that entered into circumstantial evidence; and that their decisions were infinitely more influenced by that description of proof than might be deemed consistent with the accepted rules of evidence or could have been tolerated in the practice of an English Court.

The administration of the revenue was committed, under the control of three principal Subadārs, to Amils presiding over taluks sufficiently limited in extent to admit a delightful personal inspection of the whole of their charge; the number of these taluks varied, as convenience seemed to require, from 116 to 120. Each taluk is divided into hoblis, which paid from 4,000 to 9000 pagodas. These were managed by a set of officers who were interposed between the Amildars and Gaudas. The head person of a hobli was called a Parpatti, and by the Mussalmans a Shekdar. He visited every village to see the state of cultivation and of the tanks, and settled

disputes that were above the reach of the Gauda's understanding. In this he was always assisted by the advice of four old men. He could not inflict any corporal punishment without the orders of the Amildar. The Parpatti received the rents from the Gaudas and transmitted them to the Amildars. Most of these officers were Brāhmans; very few were Sūdras. In each hobli there were two accountants, called Gadi Shanbhogs, but by the Mussalmans named Sheristadars. Until Tipu's time, these officers were hereditary, and they were always Brāhmans. In each hobli, for every 1,000 pagodas rent that it paid, there was also a Manigar, or Tahsildar as he was called by Mussalmans. There were the deputies of the Parpatti to execute his orders. They also were all Brāhmans. The whole of the hobli establishment was paid by monthly wages.

The Dewan entered in a separate account ancient allotments of land to the local institutions of the hamlets and villages (involving a detail of 41,739 objects and persons, and an annual expense of 89,489 pagodas), and excluded the amount in the first instance from the account of the gross revenue, as it can never become an available source of supply.

The four distinct heads of revenue were—land-tax, sayar, toddy and spirituous liquors and tobacco.

The head of land-tax comprised, besides the objects which it described, the house-tax and the plough-tax, being an impost, varying in different districts according to ancient practice, of about the average rate of one Kanthirāya fanam annually on each house and plough. The province of Bednūr and the districts of Balam and Tayur, with all plantations of trees not annual, paid a fixed money rent. The whole of the dry ground of Mysore paid also a fixed money rent with the distinction, however, regarding the tenures of the lands, which has been mentioned above. The rent to be paid for dry land

accordingly did not depend on the quantity cultivated, and the Amil no further concerned himself with that object than to observe whether the raiyat sufficiently exerted his industry to be able to pay the rent. All Amils were authorized to make *takāvi* advances when necessary. The superior certainty of a dry compared to a wet crop was limited to wet ground under reservoirs; and the uncertainty of the quantity of water which might be collected and of course of the extent of land which could be watered was among the principal reasons which long prevented the adjustment of a money rent for such lands; and they long continued the ancient practice of the *vāram*, or the payment to the government of a moiety of the actual crop. The wet cultivation which depended on the embankments of the Cauvery and other rivers which have their source in the western hills was of a different description, and was usually considered the most certain of all the crops; for such lands the payment of a money rent had been introduced, and was gradually gaining ground. In some few cases, such lands were held under an ancient fixed rent, much lower than recently introduced rates.

The original proclamation which pledged the Dewan to the ancient Hindu assessment, both of the land and of the sayar, had in both instances been attended with its appropriate advantage and inconvenience. Each district having at remote periods been governed by distinct authorities, each had its peculiar rates of sayar, founded on no principle of general application. On areca-nut, for instance, it had been the ancient custom to levy a duty on money not *ad valorem*; but as the areca-nut of different districts differs materially in quality and price, the duty, if it were uniform, would afford no means of computing the correct value of the export; and it is certain that the increase and decrease in the duty was by no means in the rates of the value, but had been fixed in

each district on arbitrary considerations which could not be traced. The sayar in some districts had been formed; and in others it had been held in *amāni*, a difference which still further increased the intricacy of the subject.

The revenue from toddy and spirituous liquors was generally formed. The fourth head of revenue, tobacco, was generally formed, with proper restrictions regarding the selling price. Betel-leaf produced a revenue in one town only of Mysore, namely, Chitaldrug where the tax existed previous to the annexation of that district to Mysore; the produce of this tax was included with that of tobacco.

Under the expenses of management, the first head was that of Jagirs and Inams for religious purposes. The details delivered by Pūrnaiya to the Mysore Commissioners, as allowed by Haidar Alī Khān, disclosed the following disbursements :—

<i>Kanthiraya Pagodas.</i>		
Devasthans and Agrahars	...	1,93,959
Maths of Brāhmans	...	20,000
Muhammadan establishments as allowed by Tipu Sultān	...	20,000
Total	...	2,33,959

The particular attention of the Resident was directed to the diminution and check of these expenses, and chiefly to guard against the alienation of land to Brāhmans, an abuse which was considered not improbable under a Hindu Government administered by Brāhmans. The Dewan in the first instance assumed the possession of the lands of all descriptions, principally with the view of revising the grants and alienations of every kind, and this operation enabled him to make many commutations of land for money payment, with the consent of the parties.

The second head in the expenses of management was the repairs of tanks. The ruin and neglect into which every public work of this kind had fallen during the administration of Haidar Alī and Tipu Sultān caused the expenses in the two first years to be large.

The whole of the disbursements charged under the general head "expenses of management," amounted in the fourth year (including the expense of rebuilding the forts of Bangalore and Channapatna, which certainly could not belong to such head) to 510,000, which is 20·3 per cent on the gross revenue; but inams and jagirs (under whatever head it may be customary to charge them) could not correctly be reckoned in expense of "managing the revenue," and the explanations already given show that a very moderate portion of the Kanda-chār ought to be considered as a revenue charge. If one-third could be considered as the fair proportion, the expenses of management would then be reduced to 342,736, and its relation to the gross revenues of the same year would be 13½ per cent. In the fifth year, these expenses amounted (exclusively of the repairs of forts) to 486,011, or 24,000 less than in the fourth year.

The considerations belong principally to the question of the actual expense of collecting the revenue, and the technical mode of reckoning its net produce. If the sums discussed had not been brought to account in that manner, they would have been inserted as a charge in the general expenses of the government; and as the principal part of the income of Pūrnaiya, as Dewan, was derived from his commission on the net revenue, it was creditable to his moderation that the account of the net revenue was framed in a mode which was unfavourable to the amount of his income.

According to this mode of reckoning, the net revenue, by deducting from the gross amount the whole of the charges above discussed, amounted in the first year to

pagodas 16,99,872 ; second year, 17,94,102 ; third year, 19,78,899 ; fourth year, 19,89,436 ; fifth year, 21,27,522. The gross revenue for the same years, after deducting the balances not recovered in the four first years, was:—first year, pagodas 21,53,607 ; second year, 24,10,521, third year, 25,47,096 ; fourth year, 25,01,572 ; fifth year, 25,18,550.

In the general disbursements of the government, the first head of subsidy to the Company, pagodas 8,42,592, was a fixed charge.

There was but one other head of general disbursements, *viz.*, the military establishment. The outline presented by Pūrnaiya to the Commissioners for the affairs of Mysore estimated the number of troops necessary to be kept in the Mahārāja's service for the security and tranquility of the country, exclusively of the Company's troops maintained under the provisions of the subsidiary treaty at " Five thousand Horse ; from four to five thousand Barr, formed after the manner of the Company's sepoy ; and two thousand peons." The number which he considered to be necessary, after an experience of five years, was:—Horse, 2,000 ; Barr, 4,000 ; peons in constant pay, 2,500, exclusively of a garrison battalion of 1,000 men on inferior pay for Mysore, and about an equal number of the same description for Manjarābād, the 2,000 Horse to be inclusive or exclusive of 500 stable Horse, according to the circumstances.

At a later period, in 1805, Pūrnaiya is said to have represented the necessity of establishing separate departments of justice at Mysore ; and a Court of Adalat was accordingly constituted, consisting of :—two Bakshis as Judges ; two Sheristadars and six persons of respectability taken from the Mutfarkhat, and styled Cumtee Wallahs, Hakims or Panchāyats, who formed a standing Panchāyat, with one Khāzi and one Pandit.

There was no regular form of proceedings laid down for the observance of this court. The standing panchāyat, composed as described, conducted the inquiry, *viva voce*, before the presiding judge or judges. No *muchchalike* was demanded from the parties binding them to abide by the verdict, nor was the latter presented by the panchāyat to the judge in writing. The plaintiff and defendant used to attend in person, and an examination was made of such witnesses and documents as they might have to produce; the witnesses were not examined upon oath, nor had the practice of receiving the written statements and counter-statements called *plaint*, *answer*, *reply* and *rejoinder* been then introduced.

The two judges first appointed were Vyasa Rao and Ahmed Khan. The former was chief in rank, and possessed much of the confidence of Pūrnaiya, to whom he was in the habit of referring frequently in the course of the day such judicial questions as arose; whilst Ahmed Khan merely attended the minister in the evening to make his formal report and receive instructions. Besides his functions of judge, Vyasa Rao used to hear and determine, in the same court, all complaints whatever preferred by raiyats on revenue matters, and on these subjects Ahmed Khan never exercised any control. In such disputes alone were *muchchalikes* or bonds taken from the applicants, binding them to abide by the decision which might be passed on their case. Vyasa Rao was also Bakshi of the Shagird Pesha or household department (in itself a very laborious office), as well as of the Sandal cutcherry. Both judges sat at the same time, and the decrees were submitted to their united judgment; in forming which they were aided by the personal representation of such of the *panchāyatdārs* as had heard the case. In a simple matter the decision was usually confirmed and sealed when presented to the judges for that purpose and a report of the decision was

made at the close of the day to the prime minister, whose final confirmation was in all cases necessary. But when any difficulty occurred, the judges were accustomed to represent at once the circumstances to Pūrnaiya, and take his directions.

In this court, both civil and criminal cases were heard. Matters of caste were referred for decision to the Khāzi or Pandit, aided by a *panchāyet* of such individuals as were considered competent. There was, however, little civil litigation in those days.

In the taluks also, during Pūrnaiya's administration, a course of proceeding similar to that already described under the ancient Hindu rulers obtained; the parties either named a *panchāyat* themselves, and agreed to abide by their decision, or they made application to the taluk authorities, who ordered a *panchāyat* usually composed of the killedār and two or three of the principal *yajmāns* and chettis, and the matter was settled as they decided.

Government
of Maharaja
Krishnaraja
Wodeyar,
1811-1881
A.D.

Of the administration of H. H. the Maharaja Krishna Raja Wodeyar (1811-31) we have an account in Col. W. Morison's *Notes on Mysore*, written in 1833.

At that time, Mysore consisted of the following six Faujdaris, subdivided into 101 taluks:—

<i>Faujdari.</i>	<i>Taluks.</i>	<i>Faujdari.</i>	<i>Taluks.</i>
Bangalore	} 27	Ashtagrām	25
Maddagiri (Now		Manjarābad	11
Madhugiri)		Nagar	25
Chitaldrug	... 13		

An outline of
the adminis-
trative
history of the
period.
(i). Land
Revenue
System.

The administration was conducted generally on the lines laid down by Pūrnaiya. Except in rare cases, the Maharaja did not deviate from what had become fairly well established. Thus no changes were introduced by him as regards the Land Revenue System in the

Bangalore, Madhugiri and Ashtagrām divisions; in Chitaldrug, the only reduction allowed by him was on the tax on sugar-cane lands. In parts of the Manjarābād Faujdari, forming of revenue was reverted to. This appears to have been due to the fact that the land had not been, as elsewhere, measured. The result was, as might be expected, rather injurious to the revenue.

The amount of revenue of all descriptions in Mysore for the year 1831-32 was Kanthiraya pagodas 20,88,978, of which the land revenue was said to be 16,18,831; the amount of sayar, including the monopolies of the five articles, *viz.*, tobacco, betel-leaves, ganja, toddy and arrack, was 4,01,101 and that of the other taxes of various kinds, under the head of Bajebab, was 69,039.

The amount of Kanthiraya pagodas 16,18,831, said to be the land revenue, did not, however, wholly belong to it; for it appears that various taxes, both connected and unconnected with the land revenue, were mixed up with that head. The land revenue properly so called was known under two designations only, *viz.*, kandāyam and shist: the first existing in every part of Mysore, with the exception of Nagar, and the second in the Nagar district only. The inferior taxes directly connected with the land revenue and mixed up with it consisted of 83 different designations, under which these taxes were levied. The inferior taxes unconnected with the land revenue, but also mixed up with it like the foregoing, consisted of 198 different designations, some of which prevailed all over Mysore, some less in general, and some existing only in one or two of the taluks. Of these inferior taxes, some appear to have belonged to the Mohatarfa, some to the Bajebab, and some to the Sayar.

The highest amount of the *jamābandi* during Pūrnaiya's period was 31,79,000 Kanthiraya pagodas, which was in the year 1809, the average during his management being

no less than 27,84,327 pagodas. The highest amount of the *jamābandi* during H. H. the Maharaja's period was 30,26,594, and the average was 26,53,614 pagodas. The difference between these averages, 1,30,713 Kanthiraya pagodas, was set down by Col. Morison as the amount of the annual decrease during the administration of the Maharaja. Before accepting this conclusion, it would be very desirable to ascertain what quantity of land produced the revenues above mentioned, but unfortunately as he himself admits, the necessary material for this purpose was not forthcoming.

The whole extent of cultivated land in Mysore appears to have been in the proportion of three-eighths wet to five-eighths of dry cultivation. The lands not having been classed, it is impossible to describe them, but upon an estimate it appears that the land of red colour was five-sixteenths, the land of the mixed sorts was one-fourth, black clay, three-sixteenths, and that mixed with chunam, stones, pebbles, including rough land, was one-fourth.

The water-courses taken from rivers and mountain torrents were rated at 1,832 in number; the tanks, great and small, at 19,817; and the wells at 16,371. The grain irrigated from these was chiefly paddy, but garden articles were reared by the same means. All other crops depended on the periodical rains, but for want of accounts at the Huzur, it is not practicable to ascertain the quantities of land supplied with water from each of these resources.

The crops being cut at the proper periods, the first deductions from the grain were the *rusums* issued at the threshing-floor to the Barabaluti. The rates at which these different persons were paid were various in the several Faujdaris.

If the produce were that of *kandāyam* lands, it was taken by the inhabitants to their houses on paying the

rusums which were given in like manner to the Barabaluṭi in the first instance; the remainder being then divided between the Sarkar and the raiyats who had cultivated the same.

The general average *kandāyam* or government rent was usually about one-third of the gross produce. This at least was the case in Bangalore, Madhugiri and Ashtagrām. In Chitaldrug, however, the *kandāyam* seems to have been about 18 per cent more than one-third; but as labour was cheaper there, than in other divisions, the ryot was nearly as well off as anywhere else. In Manjarābād, the assessment was 5 per cent, and agricultural charges nearly 2 per cent more, rendering the surplus to the ryot nearly 7 per cent less. In Nagar, the agricultural charges were higher than elsewhere, so that the *kandāyam* fell off 3 per cent, and the surplus to the ryot 9 per cent below the proportionate rate of Bangalore, Madhugiri and Ashtagrām.

In other countries, there are ryots who pay a large sum in rent to government, in some instances to the extent of 10,000 rupees a year. It was not so in Mysore, and from many inquiries made it appeared that amongst 384,702 raiyats, the highest, the medium, and the lowest *kandāyam* rent paid by one individual in the several Faujdaris were as shown in the following table:—

Faujdaris				Highest	Medium	Lowest
				Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Bangalore	} 50	10	3
Madhugiri		50	1
Chitaldrug		150	2
Ashtagrām		50	3
Manjarābād		150	10
Nagar (including areca-nut)	300		

There was seldom to be found more than one village in the possession of one individual, nor did one person,

anywhere possess one description of land only; for each raiyat having dry land, had generally a proportion of wet and garden also, at all events one or other of the two last. The condition of the people in Mysore seems to demand this arrangement, which is everywhere of easy accomplishment in Mysore.

The highest, medium, and the lowest extent of land, including wet and dry, held by one individual in each Faujdari, were ascertained, and are exhibited in the following table:—

Faujdaris	Highest	Medium	Khandis
	Khandis.	Khandis.	Khandis.
Bangalore	} 9 20 12 30 ...	3½	3
Madhugiri		12	8
Chitaldrug		5	1
Ashtagrām		15	1
Manjarābād

The rates of kandāyam were various throughout the country. The following is a general abstract of the average amount of kandāyam assessed upon one khandi of land of all descriptions in Mysore in Kanthiraya pagodas:—

Faujdaris	Wet land				Dry land				Cocoa garden			
	1st Sort	2nd Sort	3rd Sort	4th Sort	1st Sort	2nd Sort	3rd Sort	4th Sort	1st Sort	2nd Sort	3rd Sort	4th Sort
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Bangalore ..	0	0	0	0	20	16	12	10	0	0	0	0
Madhugiri ...	5	4	3	2	16	12	10	8	30	25	20	16
Chitaldrug ...	12	9	7	6	25	18	13	10	20	15	12	10
Ashtagrām ...	15	10	5	4	25	10	8	8	50	38	25	12
Manjarābād ...	12	8	5	3	10	6	3	1½	25	15	10	0
Nagar ...	6	5	4	35	10	8	6	5	20	13	10	6

Faujdaris	Garden land				Sugar-cane			
	1st Sort	2nd Sort	3rd Sort	4th Sort	1st Sort	2nd Sort	3rd Sort	4th Sort
	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21
Bangalore ...	16	12	10	8	60	50	40	80
Madhugiri ...	0	0	0	0	15	13	10	8
Chitaldrug ...	0	0	0	0	32	28	25	20
Ashtagrām ...	10	2	6	4	38	26	14	8
Manjarābād ...	0	0	0	0	22	15	10	0
Nagar ...	0	0	0	0	5-7-8	4-7-8	4	3-5

We may now turn to the tenures of the land that prevailed during the period.

First. The raiyats cultivating *kandāyam* lands held them in some instances from generation to generation, paying a fixed money rent, this being now the general meaning of the word *kandāyam*, whatever it may have been originally.

Second. Raiyats cultivating the lands under the *vāram* or *batāyi* system, whether in the same or other villages, were nothing more than hired labourers. They cultivated the land and received in return a share of the produce. The people of any village in which these lands existed had the preference before others; nor could they be refused the work, if they had tilled the lands for a number of years; that is, if they still chose to cultivate the same. In some cases, the raiyats of the same village, and even those from other villages, were forced to undertake the cultivation of the *vāram* lands which belonged to the Sarkar.

Third. In certain places there were tanks called *amāni talav* not belonging to any particular village. The lands under these reservoirs were cultivated by raiyats collected from several villages in their neighbourhood, who received their due share of the produce, under the superintendence of the public servants.

Fourth. There were raiyats who cultivated *shrāya* lands, that is, lands held by those who engaged to pay a reduced *kandāyam* for three or four years, and from the last year to pay the full amount.

Fifth. There were raiyats who held entire villages for a fixed rent called *kāyamgutta*, for which they received regular grants without any period being specified. This tenure had its origin in the time of the Rāja to favour certain individuals.

Sixth. There were raiyats called *jodidars*, or those who held lands under a favourable rent, which lands or even villages were formerly *inām* enjoyed by Brāhmans and others rent free until the time of Tīpu Sultān, who, from his aversion towards the Hindu religion, sequestered the *jōdi* lands, and levied upon them the full assessment. The Brāhmans, however, continued to hold favourable terms; accordingly, in the administration of Pūrnaiya, their complaints were heard, and they received the indulgence of a small remission of Sultān's assessment, and continued to hold the lands under the denomination of *jōdi*, though no longer *inām*. In a very few instances, however, some lands continued in *jōdi*, as given in ancient times, and were as such still enjoyed.

Raiyats possessing *kandāyam* lands and paying the full assessment could only be dispossessed when they failed to pay their rent to the Sarkar. Raiyats possessing *kandāyam* lands but paying less than the fixed assessment or original *kandāyam* might be dispossessed in favour of raiyats offering an increase, if they did not choose to give the same. Suppose, for example, that 12 pagodas was the original assessment, but that it had been reduced to 8 pagodas in consequence of the death or desertion of the raiyat, when it was transferred to *vāram* and cultivated on the Sarkar account, occasioning the revenue to be reduced to 8 pagodas as first mentioned. Supposing then, that 10 pagodas were offered and accepted; but as this offer was still short of the former *kandāyam*, though above what could be realized under the *vāram* management, offers would continue to be received from anyone willing to give the full amount, though the actual incumbent had the preference if he should choose to pay the full assessment. If not, he must make way for the new tenant willing to pay in full.

The raiyats who cultivated areca-nut gardens appear to have had the right of hereditary possessors ; they were accordingly accustomed to sell or mortgage their property. Supposing these proprietors were to fail in payment of their dues to the Sarkar, and the same should fall into arrears, the proprietor might sell his lands and pay the dues of government, when the purchaser had the same rights in the soil as were possessed by his predecessor.

There were raiyats who possessed land which either themselves or their ancestors had reclaimed from the jungle at great expense. These lands were also held as hereditary possessions, with the right of disposing of them by sale or otherwise.

There were also raiyats who held their lands by long descent from generation to generation, who were in the habit of transferring the same to others, either by sale or mortgage, etc.

There were raiyats who cultivated lands called *kodagi*, on which an invariable rent was fixed not liable to any change on account of the seasons or otherwise. These lands were also saleable, and at the present day continue to be disposed of at the will of the holders. These lands originally were inams from the sovereigns or the villagers, but having been subsequently assumed by the Sarkar, an unchangeable rent was fixed upon them. Again, some raiyats cultivated lands called *kodagi* lands, which were originally inam granted by the Sarkar for the payment of a sum of money as a *nazar*, but latterly subjected to the same fate as the lands described above. Lands of both descriptions were also to be found in the Manjarābād district.

There were raiyats who cultivated land for an assessment called *shist*, and who had been subjected at different periods to additional imposts since the *shist* was originally established by Sivappa-Nāyak ; they still had pretensions to a proprietary right in the soil.

There were raiyats who cultivated lands called *rekanast*, which during the reign of the Vijayanagar kings had an assessment called *Rāyarēka*, but having subsequently been overrun with jungle, no *Rāyarēka* or assessment was levied thereon. They were called *rekanast*, which means without assessment, nor was any shist put upon them by Sivappa-Nāyak, because they were not cultivated. When reclaimed, however, they became liable to assessment at the average rate of the neighbouring lands, still retaining the same names. These lands are accordingly described as a district variety of tenure still known in the Nagar district.

There were raiyats called *jōdi agrahārdārs*, cultivating lands in some villages of Nagar under an assessment called *jōdi*, which might be equal to one-fifth, one-fourth, one-third, or even one-half of the shist of the neighbouring villages. These lands were formerly *inam* or *sarvamānyam* given to Brāhmans, who long enjoyed them as such, but being resumed by the Sarkar, taxes were put upon them in the manner above mentioned. The descendants of the original holders, or those who may have purchased the lands from them, enjoyed them for the payment of the fixed shist; and it appears that the sale and mortgage of these lands was going on to the present day, the transfer being fully recognized by the officers of Government.

There were raiyats who cultivated lands called *gaddi batta*, which signifies lands paying rent in kind, which were only met with in the taluks of Ikkēri, Sāgar, Mandagadde, Koppa and Kavaledrug.

The raiyats in possession of the lands held under the tenures above described appear in general to have paid their rents to the Sarkar, not direct, but through the means of a renter, capable of managing so intricate a business, from possessing a complete knowledge of all the local customs. Sometimes the *patel* was a renter of

the village, and collected the revenue from the people without the intervention of the Sarkar servants. This sort of *village rent* had as many varieties as are indicated by the different modes now to be mentioned.

The ordinary mode was effected by the Amildar, Sheristadar and some other servants setting out together in the month of January or February for the purpose of inspecting the crop. During the tour of the Amildar at this season, he prepared an estimate of the November crops (already in heaps) in communication with the Sheristadars, Shekdars, Shanhogs and Patels, as also an estimate of the expected revenue from the May crop. In the same manner, an estimate was made of the sugar-cane and other produce now coming forward when the total being made out, the rent was given to the patel or gauda of the village, and the usual rent *muchchalike* taken from him for the payment of the amount, including *suvarnādāyam*. The patel being the sole renter of the village, any *suvarnādāyam* which may have been already collected was credited to him. He considered himself answerable for the rent, took charge of all the affairs of the rent, distributed the due shares of the different crops to the raiyats, disposed of the government share in the manner he thought best for his own benefits, collected *kandāyam* from the inhabitants, and paid his rent to the Sarkar. In case of any part of the revenue falling in arrears, either from the death, desertion, or poverty of the raiyats, or from any other causes, the amount, if large and irrecoverable, was remitted after a full investigation of all the particulars of the case; otherwise the renter remained answerable for the payment of the whole of the rent. This mode of village rent generally prevailed in the faujdaris of Bangalore, Madhugiri, Chitaldrug and Ashtagrām.

In the villages of Manjarābād, the village rent was given for two years, while the rent of one village might

be taken by two or three individuals. If a village were desolated, it was rented to any individual willing to take it. No rent was payable the first year, but engagements must be entered into to pay a small rent the second year, increasing the same gradually every subsequent year, until it came up to the former fixed rent.

In Nagar, there was a permanent assessment called shist. A general review was made of the lands at the beginning of the year to ascertain the probability of their being cultivated. The Amildar, when he proceeded to the village for this purpose in the month of January, ascertained the general state of the cultivation and concluded the rent with the patel of each village. If, however, the whole land of any individual raiyat was kept uncultivated from poverty, the revenue of that land was remitted. If a part only of the land of one individual was cultivated, no remission was allowed on account of the part uncultivated, the whole being included in the *jamābandi*. The *vāram* system was but little known in Nagar, but when it did occur, the usual course of taxing that produce was observed as in other parts of the country.

The mode of village rent called *wonti gutta* was when two, three or four individuals (whether of the same village or others) made an offer to rent a village. After its circumstances were duly ascertained in the usual manner, and the terms were agreed on, the Amildar granted the rent and took security for its payment, and in such cases there were no remissions, the renters being answerable for the amount settled. They were, however, obliged to enter into fair agreements with the raiyats, which were to be strictly kept, so that the raiyats might not have to complain of any exaction or oppression. If any arrears should be caused by the death, desertion, or the poverty of the raiyats after the rent was fixed, the loss must be borne by the renter. When the raiyats

were averse to any particular renter or renters, it was not unusual for them to take the rent themselves, declaring they would otherwise leave the village. In such cases, a preference was given to their officers.

The mode of village rent called *praja gutta* may be described as follows :— The Amildar proceeded to the village at the usual period of the year (that is December or January), called for all the raiyats, and desired them to enter into engagements of the rent of *praja gutta*. The amount to be rented was in most cases the same as in the preceding year. Any lands which could not be cultivated, either from the death, desertion or poverty of certain raiyats, was now struck off, and fresh lands, if there were any, added to the rent; when a general *muchhalike* was taken from the whole of the raiyats, or from such portion of the principal ones as might engage for the rent, if the actual produce fell short, the loss was borne by the whole village. If a higher offer were received, even after the conclusion of these arrangements, the rent was cancelled and given up to the other, but the rent in this case would be called *wonti gutta*. The rent once settled in one year was allowed to continue for the next three or four years. This kind of rent appears to have been a last resource, to which the public officers had recourse when every other had failed; but these rents, *viz.*, *wonti gutta* and *praja gutta*, were only very partially known, and in the faujdari of Ashtagrām.

The village rent called *kulgar gutta* was when it was managed by the kulgars. Of these, there might be six or eight in a village, together with fifteen, twenty or thirty common raiyats. The Amildar proceeded to each village in the month of December or January, investigated the real state of the different sources of revenue with reference to the collections in the past year and the condition of the raiyats, fixed the amount of the rent, and gave it up to one of the kulgars of the village who

sub-let his rent to the other kulgars, who again divided their respective allotments amongst the raiyats under them. The only way they made a profit in their rent was by exerting themselves to extend the cultivation. The raiyats of the village were answerable for their rent to the kulgars, these to the chief kulgar, who in his turn, as the ostensible renter, was answerable to the Sarkar, which in the case of this rent allowed no remissions. If any of the raiyats had either died or deserted, his lands, as well as claims against it, were divided among the kulgars themselves. If there were no kulgar in the village to take the office of renter, a shanbhog might become so, when he was called the pattegar.

The village rent called *chigar kattle* may be next considered. A proportion of land including wet and dry and requiring fifty seers of seed grain was called a *chigar*, of which there might be from sixteen to eighteen in a village, each paying a fixed rent of from 3 to 5 pagodas; each *chigar* was usually held by several raiyats, there being a principal raiyat for every *chigar* of land, and one of these annually rented the whole village, sub-letting the different *chigars* to the other principal raiyats; such villages were generally rented in the month of December or January, when the state of the crops was ascertained, but this species of rent was only to be found in one taluk, Hassan, in the faujdâri of Manjarâbâd.

There was also a village rent called *blak kattle* in the same taluk, the *blak* meaning a small portion of land differing in extent from the *chigar*, but having the same mode of assessment; and if any of the raiyats died or deserted, a portion of rent was remitted by the Sarkar, giving that land to others.

(ii) Sayar.

There were certain stations called *kattes* in every taluk, where the sayar duties were levied on all articles. The total number of these stations was no less than 761,

varying in number from one to twenty-one in each taluk. The duties levied were of three kinds :—1st. Transit duty upon such goods as passed on the high roads without coming into towns. 2nd. Transit duty on articles passing out of the towns. 3rd. Consumption duties upon goods used in towns. Whenever goods arrived at a station, the place to which they were destined was ascertained, when the duties were levied according to rates said to be established for the purpose on the spot.

The rates of duties were various, those observed in one station being different at another. The duties were not charged *ad valorem*, but according to the kind of each article; neither was there any regularity with respect to the quantities chargeable with duties; for example, a cart-load, a bullock-load, an ass's load, a man's load, etc., were charged with so many fanams each. In some of the taluks, goods charged with duties at one station were liable to be charged again with a reduced but extra duty at some other place, even in the same taluk; the extra duty was called *anup* and *kottamugam*. In some taluks, goods were liable to duties at every station of the same taluk through which they had to pass, In others the duties levied on goods conveyed by a particular class of merchants were different from those charged when conveyed by others. In some taluks, the duty was at a fixed rate provided they passed by a certain road. If goods chargeable with duty in one year should be kept till the next year, and then sent away, they were again chargeable with duty.

In several of the districts, periodical markets were held, generally once a week, when fixed taxes were levied upon the shops. 1st. Every shop paid a few cash, and this tax was called *addi kāsū*. 2nd. Every vegetable shop paid something in kind, under the name of *fuski*. 3rd. Every cloth shop paid a tax of from 2 to 6 cash, called *wundige* or shop duty. 4th. There was a tax

called *pattadi*, which in some places was called *karve* and *bidagi*, levied on every cloth-shop, grain, mutton, and arrack shop, etc. There was likewise a certain tax upon every loom; also upon betel-leaf plantations, areca-nut gardens, sugar-cane plantations, and upon every plough of the raiyats, exclusive of the land revenue. There was a tax on the cattle of merchants. The taxes on the above were collected—some annually, some monthly, and daily from temporary shops.

Tariff tables, called *prahara pattis*, exhibiting the rate of duty to be paid on each article, were issued by the Sarkar, and posted up in most of the *kattes*, though the government granted *kauls*, of entire or partial exemption, in certain cases. This appears to have led to one injurious consequence. Similar *kauls* were issued by successive *izardars* and sub-renters to their own particular friends during their own period of incumbency, and these became to be confounded with those granted by the Sarkar. The consequence was that in the course of time the *prahara pattis* were looked upon as so much waste paper, and each *katte* came to have a set of *mamul* or local rates of its own, which were seldom claimed without an attempt at imposition or admitted without a wrangle. The usual result was an appeal to the Sayar Shanbhog of the place, who became the standing referee in all disputed cases, which he may be supposed to have decided in favour of the party which made it most advantageous to himself.

It became necessary therefore for the trader to purchase the good will of every Sayar servant along the whole line of road by which he travelled, or to submit to incessant inconvenience and detention. He was thus subject to constant loss of time, or money, or both; and the merchants were unable to calculate either the time which their goods would take to reach a particular spot, or the expenses which would attend their carriage.

Even as to the *kauls* which certain merchants enjoyed, there were perplexing differences in the way in which the deductions were calculated. With some it was a fixed percentage to be deducted from the proper rate to be levied; while with others the full rate was taken, but only on certain fixed proportion of the goods. Another fertile source of confusion and corruption was that, to gratify some particular *izardars*, certain merchants and certain productions were confined to particular routes; and, if they travelled or were carried by another line of custom houses, the *izardars* of that line were made to pay compensation for the loss presumed to have been sustained by the renters of the prescribed line.

When it is considered that there was hardly a luxury, certainly not a necessary of life, which was not subject to pay the duty to the authorities of these 761 sayars, chaukis, and that some of these duties were payable daily, some monthly, and some annually, while there were others of items which involved the necessity of a prying scrutiny into the most private and delicate domestic occurrences, it may be imagined that the system was calculated to interfere constantly with the comfort and the interests of every portion of the population. It is possible, indeed, that it may have been framed originally with some such ideas, for a legend current in Mysore assigns the palm of wisdom among monarchs to a prince who invented 365 taxes, each leviable on its own particular day, so that no twenty-four hours could pass without the idea of the prince's power having been brought home to each of his subjects in the most unmistakable way,

Great as was the direct annoyance to the people, the indirect, by the obstacles thrown in the way of trade, became still greater. In fact, stranger merchants were practically debarred from entering the country, and the whole of the trade, such as it was, became monopolized

by the Sayar contractors or their servants, and a few practised traders who were in close alliance with them or knew how to command powerful interest at the Darbār.

The system in force in the four different Divisions of Nagar, Ashtagrām, Bangalore and Chitaldrug were widely different. Under the Rāja's administration, the Sayar department in Nagar was divided into three Ilākhas or branches. 1st. 'The *Kāuledroog Sārsayar*, including the Chikmagalur, Koppa, Kāuledroog, Holehonnur, Lakvalli and Shimoga taluks, and the kasaba town of Channagiri. 2nd. The *Ikkēri Sārsayar*, comprising the Honnāli, Sāgar, Shikārpur and Sorab taluks, together with the kasba of Bellandur in Nagar taluk. 3rd. *The Phoot Taluk Izara*, comprehending the Kadur, Harihar, Tarikere and Channagiri taluks, with the exception of kasba of the last, which was included in the Kāuledroog Sārsayar.

The Phoot Taluk Izara was rented by a Wot Izardar, who bound himself by his *muckchalike* to realize a certain annual sum for the Sarkar, and whatever he could scrape together or extort beyond that sum was his own property. The two Sārsayar Ilākhas were made over to the management of Sārsayar Amildars, nominated on the *sharti* system of bestowing the appointment, without reference to qualification, on the man who would bid highest for it. It was stipulated that they were not to keep the executive in their own hands but were to sub-let it to others over whom they were to exercise vigilant control, and in particular to prevent all undue exactions and oppression. But these were mere words. These Amildars almost invariably retained the collections in their own hands, and knowing that they were liable to supersession at any moment, their sole object was to feather their nests in the shortest possible period. In cases where the agency of sub-renters was really employed, the same description would apply,

with the additional touches which must be given to enable the reader to understand that the trader was even more victimized than when his oppressor carried on his transactions on a large scale. These sub-renters themselves obtained their appointment on the *sharti* system, and had to squeeze out a double profit to remunerate both themselves and their employer, while the permanency of their appointment was more dubious than his, in as much as they not only might be turned out at his pleasure, but were also removable along with him when he was superseded. These sub-renters therefore had to work double tides to make up a purse, and endless were the devices resorted to. Some contented themselves with squeezing more than was due from every trader who passed through their hands, while others, with more enlightened views in the science of extortion, attracted merchants to their own particular line of *kattes* by entering into private arrangements with them to let their goods pass through at comparatively light rates.

The sayar collections in Nagar were classed under three heads. 1st. *Halat*, or the excise duties levied on areca-nut, cardamoms and pepper, on removal from the place of their production. 2nd. *Charadāya*, or transit and town duties. 3rd. *Karaka*, which may be described as a composition for sayar, being a tax paid by certain classes for relief from payment of sayar duties. For carrying out the complicated sayar system in this Division, there were sixty *kattes* established, of which thirty-one were frontier, and twenty-nine internal. The establishments of such of these as were situated in the two Sārsayar Ilākhās were paid by the Government, the remainder by the Wot izardar. Of the former, there were fifty-two and of the latter eight.

The sayar of the Ashtagrām Faujdari was put up to auction, and rented, sometimes by single taluks,

sometimes in a number combined, and sometimes the whole in one lump, to the highest bidder. The renter had to find security, and both renter and security had to execute *muchchalikes*. In general, the security was the real renter, but sometimes both were merely agents of a third party who did not choose to come forward. There were occasional but rare instances of particular taluks being kept under *amāni*. When the *muchchalike* and security bond were executed, orders were issued to place the renter in charge of the various items of revenue which he had framed. This being done, he proceeded to sub-let them in any manner he pleased, or to retain the management in his own hands if he preferred it.

In the Nagar Division, sayar was nominally divided into the heads of *marg* and *pattadi*. Under the head of *marg*, properly speaking, came all the items which we should call land customs, with multifarious additions, varying in each taluk and in particular parts of the same taluk. Among them may be mentioned the *shadi kutike* rents, or taxes on marriage, concubinage, births, deaths, and other domestic occurrences. Of more than one hundred items which came under the head of *pattadi*, there was not a single one which ought rightly to have been included in the sayar. They were all of them money assessments, mostly personal in their nature, and levied direct from the raiyats. They consisted of taxes on individuals on account of their castes or professions, and of fees levied from raiyats for permission to make earth salt, to fish in tanks and streams, to collect emery stones, to gather honey, cardamoms and other jungle products, or in some places to sell the produce of their own lands.

In the Bangalore Division, probably owing to its containing the large British Cantonment, abuses were much less rife than in Nagar and Ashtagrām, and the rules for levying the Sayar duties which were in force in the time of Pūrnaiya were continued without change or

modification up to 1846-7, under izardars, to whom the sayar was annually rented on competition.

The *tobacco* monopoly existed in 38 taluks only. In Bangalore this rent existed only in the town and its dependencies, called *volagadies*. The renter purchased the article from the cultivators or imported it from Salem, from 4 to 10 fanams per maund of 49 seers, and disposed of the same to the bazaar men at from 12 to 23 fanams per maund of 40 seers. The bazaar people retailed the article at small profit of one fanam per maund. (iii) Panch bāb.

The monopoly of *betel-leaf* was not general, being found only in 15 districts. In Bangalore the custom was to employ a renter; he bought at 20 bundles for one fanam, and sold to the public servants at 16 bundles in the fanam, to the bazaar men at 8, and at 10 to the public servants in the Cantonment. The bazaar men sold in retail at $7\frac{1}{2}$ bundles per fanam, the remaining $\frac{3}{4}$ of one bundle of the eight received from the renter being the profit of the bazaar men.

The monopoly of *ganja* existed only in a very few taluks. It was confined in Bangalore to the town. The renter purchased his supplies at the rate of from 12 to $24\frac{1}{2}$ fanams per maund and sold it to the bazaar people at from 3 to 7 pagodas. The affairs of this rent were carried on by the people of the tobacco depôts.

The rent of *arrack* was taken by an individual in each taluk. The renter either sub-let portions of his rent to others or managed it in *amāni*. If he sub-let it, the under farmers engaged to pay their rent either for every shop or for each village. If kept in *amāni*, the renter established manufactories, where the arrack was prepared for distribution, employed his own servants and caused the arrack to be sold by retail at the usual rates. There was no uniform rule as to the extent of the farms, as one man might be the renter of one taluk or twenty;

while there were some taluks rented to several. There were two classes of persons, the one called Bedar and the other Kalala, who had been accustomed from ancient times to manage the arrack trade and to rent the sales from the Sarkar; but in later times the business seems to have been open to all classes. There was a tax on adultery by women of the Bedar and Kalala castes, and also on their marriages, which was formed with the arrack.

The rent of *toddy*, which was not general in all the taluks, consisted chiefly of what was obtained from the lands occupied by the wild date-tree, and was levied annually. These were sometimes called *sendi* generally levied on the beast of burden which conveyed the *sendi* trees. In some cases, every *sendi* shop was taxed, but the tax was most generally levied on the beast of burden which conveyed the *sendi* to the shops; or on the leathern bags which contained the liquor. The renter realized the tax monthly. In some taluks, there were no trees from which toddy could be extracted, but shops were still maintained by a caste called Idigar who acted under a renter and supplied themselves from other taluks. In several taluks the person who rented this article employed his own people both to extract toddy from the trees and to sell it in retail, paying them hire for their labour. There were certain taxes payable by these people on their marriages, on the fornication and adultery of their women, and on other occurrences, all of which made part of the rent. When the toddy or *sendi* was not rented, the taxes were collected in *amāni*, according to the usual rates, by the Shekdar, or by such an establishment as might be kept up for management of the Bājebāb taxes. The accounts of this revenue were not kept distinct, but mixed up with that of arrack.

(iv) Civil
Justice.

Of the system of judicature, civil and criminal, as it existed during the period, a report of 1838, by the late

Sir Mark Cubbon, contains a full and lucid account, on which the succeeding paragraphs are based.

When the Mahārāja assumed the reins of government, considerable alterations were, with the concurrence of the Resident, made in the judicial department. A new Sadar court was established at Mysore, with two Bakshis at its head, and under it were three inferior Courts, each under two Presidents called Hākims. Amongst these courts the business was divided as follows:—

The Sadar Court heard and decided all civil causes above 500 rupees: it received reports of the decisions of the three inferior branches of the court, confirmed or revised them, and inspected and sealed their decrees, without which no decision was considered valid. The second court had jurisdiction in civil causes, from 100 to 500 rupees. The third court had jurisdiction in suits not exceeding 100 rupees. The fourth court undertook the magisterial department, which will be more particularly adverted to hereafter.

Although these four courts sat in one place, and were all under the control of the Chief Judges, yet each had its separate establishment of public servants. The forms of their proceedings were adopted from the judicial regulations in force in the Madras Presidency. They examined witnesses upon oath. Two statements were taken from the plaintiff—the *plaint* and the *answer*,—and two counter-statements—the *reply* and the *rejoinder*—from the defendant; and institution fees were levied upon suits. Two-thirds of the amount of these fees were, when realized, credited to the Sarkar, and the remaining third was paid to the authorized vakils employed in the cause. There was no express provision for an appeal to the Mahārāja from the decision of the Sadar Court; nevertheless, when parties complained to the Mahārāja, he used often to call on the Judges for explanation.

(v) Criminal
Justice.

The fourth court at Mysore undertook the magisterial department, each Hākim alternately residing in it and receiving petitions; that is to say, each Hākim was employed for fifteen days successively in receiving complaints and preparing them for hearing, and fifteen days in presiding at trials. This Court inquired into all assaults, robberies and minor offences, and having presented its finding to the Bakshi of the Sadar Court, sentence was passed by the latter.

The penalty awarded for theft of all descriptions, and serious assaults, was for the most part corporal punishment, and but rarely fines; the former being always inflicted on low-caste prisoners, the latter on those of the higher caste. The instrument used for corporal punishment was the *korda*, a most formidable whip, forty strokes of which, when severely administered, were sufficient to exhaust the frame of the stoutest criminal; nevertheless, instances were very common of prisoners suspected of theft being flogged until they fell, being remanded to prison, and again subjected to the same discipline until they confessed the crime, or named a spot where the property was hidden; the former being necessarily the only resource of such as were really innocent. To carry on these severities there were two regular Jalebdars or floggers borne on the strength of the establishment of the Sadar Court, at a monthly pay of six rupees each. In heinous cases, the Bakshis were accustomed to report to His Highness the Mahārāja, and receive his orders on the subject. In awarding the amount of punishment, the Mufti was consulted by the Court, and he gave his *futwāh*. But this mode of proceeding did not extend to the greater part of offences committed in the taluks; and even with regard to those committed in the town of Mysore, it must be considered rather as the rule than the practice.

During the Mahārāja's administration, the punishment

of offences was much the same as in Pūrnaiya's time. Persons accused of serious offences, especially at the capital, were, as has been said, tried, according to rule, at the Huzur Adalat; but in practice, the Barr and other cutcherries were likewise not infrequently used as criminal courts. By all these tribunals, and also by the Sar Amīn, mutilation of the hands and feet, noses and ears was inflicted, even for ordinary theft; while corporal punishment, thumb-screws, and ear-pincers were commonly resorted to for minor offences; women convicted of incontinency were sold as slaves, and Sir Mark notes a case in which a woman is sentenced to lose her nose for that offence. Stripes were inflicted by the local officers without limitation as to number and were habitually resorted to in order to recover balances of revenue.

Under the ancient rulers of Mysore, the duties of the (vi) Police. police were conducted by village servants, under the following denominations, and these denominations were continued with little valuation under the government of Haidar Ali, Tīpu Sultān, and Pūrnaiya. These servants were paid either in inam lands, shares of grain from the raiyats, or direct from the Sarkar. *Talvars*, *totis*, *nirgantis* and *kāval-gārs*, the usual village servants so called; *kattabidi* peons, watchmen on public pay: *Hale Paiki*, ancient or common peons: *umblidars*, holders of inam lands called *umbli*: it was their duty to provide a constant succession of watchmen, and they were held responsible to protect all property within their limits: *amargars*, holders of inams called *amar*, which they held for the performance of police duties: *hul-gāval*, selected from the thirteen castes, they were entrusted with the charge of public treasure: *ankamala*, watchmen of the Bedar caste: *kalla Kormar*, thieves by profession, and found useful in detecting thieves; also the patels and shanbhogs. In the time of the Pālegārs, these watchmen were held

responsible for all robberies committed, whether in fields or houses ; they traced robbers by the footsteps, and if unsuccessful, themselves became responsible for all lost public property of moderate amount, but not for private property.

The first blow struck at the power of the patels was in the reign of Kanthīrava-Narasa-Rāja in 1654. That king, attributing the opposition he met with from his subjects to the turbulence of the patels, reduced their inams, and confiscated to his own use a great part of their property. Their allowances were partially restored by Chikka-Dēva-Rāja, who ascended the musnud in 1672, and he at the same time regulated the rusums of the other Barābalūtis. His son and successor, Kanthīrava-Rāja, however, sequestered the shares of the patels, leaving the inams of other village servants as they were.

Under Haidar the effective state of the police can be much more readily credited, as, indeed, it can be more easily accounted for ; there was then no separation of interests, and no clashing of jurisdictions. His administration was as extensive as it was vigorous, and besides the terror of his name, and the real sagacity of his character, it must be remembered that his immense levies effectually drained the country of all turbulent spirits, or, what is much the same, gave them employment congenial to their tastes and a sure means of livelihood. Haidar took no steps to restore to the patels their sequestered allowances ; but by continuing to the other Barābalūtis their emoluments and privileges, he ensured their services. The village walls and boundary hedges were kept in repair ; and tranquility was preserved by the presence of his troops, who were everywhere distributed, and by the severity of his punishment whenever it was disturbed.

Under Tīpu Sultān, the police, though impaired by the reduction of many of the patels, *umbliḍārs* and

amargars, and by the assessment levied upon their inam lands, was still kept from utter ruin by the presence of his troops under the Asofs, and the dread of his sanguinary disposition. The Sultān's reductions, however, extended only partially to Nagar, and not at all to Manjarābād, where his authority was never sufficiently established to render such measures practicable; and at one period of his reign, he appears to have had some intention of restoring to the patels the inams of which they had been deprived. They were accordingly summoned to his presence, inquiries were instituted for that purpose, and *sannads* were actually issued to the taluk cutcherries for delivery to them, but for some reasons which are not known, probably the confusion of the affairs of his kingdom, nothing further was done to replace them in their old position.

Under the administration of Pūrnaiya, the Kandāchārs selected from the remains of Tīpu's army were employed in the police, and as the country was well guarded from disturbance, by the vigilance of the ruler and the presence of British garrisons, little opportunity was afforded for the perpetration of those crimes which in India are almost an invariable consequence of public disorder. But the ruin of the patels was completed by Pūrnaiya in the year 1800. Until the period of his government, patels' inams, though sequestered, were still entered as such in the accounts of the *Sivayi jama*, or extra revenue; thus kept separate, it was easy to restore them to their original possessors, who probably still had hopes from the clemency of some future sovereign. Pūrnaiya, however, at once destroyed such expectations, by including the whole of these allowances under the general revenue of the country. But Pūrnaiya did more. He reduced many of this class whom Tīpu had spared; and as this final spoliation of the patels was immediately followed by the establishment of sixty-three charitable

feeding houses, the two measures were inseparably connected in the public opinion.

The same state of things continued for some years during the period of the Mahārāja's administration. In the capital, the police authority was aided by the Barr or infantry, a large body of which was constantly stationed in the town for that purpose.

(b) Non-Regulation Period, 1831-55.

Organization
of the
Commission
in 1834.

When the British Commission was organised in 1834, the six Faujdaris were reconstituted into the four divisions of Bangalore, Nagar, Chitaldrug and Ashtagrām, Madhugiri being absorbed into Chitaldrug and Manjarābād into Ashtagrām. Each division was placed under a European Superintendent with Revenue and Judicial powers. Under them was a Principal Sadar Munsiff for each of the former Faujdaris, but not until two years later were European assistants added to the staff under the Superintendent of the Division. The Commissioner, however, had four assistants, the first of whom was his Secretary. At first the local Military Force was placed under the Superintendent of the Bangalore Division who, it was considered, would be able to supervise the force without prejudice to his ordinary duties; but this arrangement was very soon changed and a military assistant who was of the rank and drew the pay of a Superintendent was appointed specially for the management of the Local Force, the Superintendent of the Bangalore Division being simultaneously relieved of his military duties.

Judicial
Machinery.

The Judicial machinery as then constituted consisted of five grades of Courts presided over respectively by:—

- (a) The Amildar of the Taluk,
- (b) The Principal Sadar Munsiff,

- (c) The Superintendent,
- (d) The Judges of the Huzur Adalat,
- (e) The Commissioner.

The Amildar had civil jurisdiction in cases involving personal property up to the value of Rs. 100 and up to Rs. 500 with the aid of a *panchāyat*. In criminal cases, he could fine to the extent of Rs. 7 and imprison for 14 days. The Principal Sadar Munsiff had power in criminal cases to fine up to Rs. 15 and imprison for 2 years. He heard appeals in civil cases from the Amildar.

The Superintendent, who was a court of civil appeal from the decrees of the Munsiff and of first instance in all those outside the Munsiff's powers, had powers as a Criminal Court to imprison up to 7 years, but only to fine up to Rs. 30. All higher punishments were left to the Huzūr Adālat and the Commissioner, who had power to fine according to their discretion; but the decision of the Judges of the Adālat were always open to revision by the Commissioner. The Adālat was composed of three Indian Judges. The Commissioner could preside in person to hear civil appeals also under the rules then introduced and when he did so, the Judges acted as assessors. While rules were made for regulating the procedure of the Civil Courts, the settlement of disputes out of court by *panchāyat* was encouraged.

The Amildar of the Taluk was the head of the Police Police. in it, having under him the Killedar, Hoblidar and Shekdar, a system which survived until the old *kandāchār* force was broken up and the Police Rules of 1872 were introduced.

As regards Public Works, great stress was laid upon Public Works. the need for keeping the tanks in repair. Instructions were issued on this subject in 1834 by Sir Mark Cubbon

to the Superintendents on their first appointment. Each Superintendent had a small *marahmat* establishment under him, at the head of which was an Engineer Officer.

Local Taxes.

Sir Mark Cubbon issued to the Superintendents on their appointment in 1834, a detailed letter of instructions which contained minute details as to their duties in revenue matters. In this letter, he set out how the *kandāyam* lands were to be accounted for and the money collected, what measures were to be taken for the extension of cultivation and how *batūyi* revenue was to be realised. The other items of revenue touched on were the *panchabāb*, being taxes on tobacco, betel leaves, ganja, arrack, and toddy; Sayar and Mohatarfa. The grain duties were removed and the necessity of revising the system of Sayar was adverted to by him as essential. But it was in the Mohatarfa that the greatest confusion existed and the greatest opportunity for oppression was afforded. In an appendix to his instructions, Sir Mark Cubbon gave a list of 83 taxes connected with and included in the land revenue and 198 inferior taxes "unconnected with the land revenue but mixed up with it." The Superintendents were told that they should separate the Mohatarfa revenue in the accounts from the land revenue with which it was mixed up; and that every item of Mohatarfa should form the subject of an enquiry as to how far the same or similar imposts prevailed in the several Divisions and as to whether justice or policy required their discontinuance on account of their unproductiveness or the vexation caused to the inhabitants thereby. As a result of the enquiries thus instituted, Sir Mark Cubbon was able to report in 1855 that no less than 769 items of taxation had been swept away.

Land
Revenue
System.

The revenue system followed was the Raiyatvāri which is well adapted to the wants and traditions of the

people of Mysore. It was brought back as far as possible to the state in which it was left by Pūrnaiya but liberalized in all its details and vigilantly superintended in its working, the ideal aimed at being not so much the mere swelling of a balance sheet as making it sit as lightly as may be on the people. The money rents were lowered in all cases where the authorities were satisfied that they were fixed at too high a rate, and the payments were made as easy as possible to the raiyats by abandoning the system under which the *khists* were exacted before the crops were gathered in and receiving it instead in five instalments payable at periods fixed in the first instance by the raiyats themselves with reference to the times of harvest.

In cases where the *batāyi* system or that of an equal division of the crop between Government and the cultivator was found to be in force, every effort, consistent with the prescriptive right of the cultivators, was made to convert it into a money payment. This attempt was attended with considerable success. Where, however, the *batāyi* system could not be dispensed with, it was purged of its most vexatious characteristics. The result of these arrangements was that the revenue was collected without the least difficulty.

Trade, improved cultivation and the establishment of new industries were encouraged not only by readjusting the assessment of the land, abolishing transit duties and other vexatious imposts, settling by the grant of pensions and allowances the once turbulent and dangerous Pālegārs and securing general peace and tranquility throughout the country, but also by the construction of good bridged roads, by giving encouragement to the cultivation of mulberry, cotton and coffee and by helping the wool industry with the importation of Merino rams.

Reviving
Industry and
Commerce.

Transition Period, 1856-62.

Reforms
of the
Transition
Period.

In 1856, the revenue of the State was nearly double of what it had been in October 1831, when the Governor-General assumed the administration of the country; and though it had been greatly simplified in detail by the abolition of many petty and vexatious taxes, yet the very enquiries which had to be instituted before revision of taxation could be effected necessitated a large amount of work.

With the advancement of the country, its wants grew and though radical changes were resisted, it was inevitable that all institutions should expand to meet the growing wants. The Marahmat Department for the execution of public works, which had in 1834 consisted of small establishments under the Superintendents, all directed by a single European Officer at head-quarters, had in twenty years' time grown into a Department of Public Works with the Province divided off into Executive Engineers' charges; the requirements of the country in medical aid had long since led to the institution of a second Surgeon's charge at Shimoga and there were eight stations with Dispensaries in charge of an Apothecary. In 1856, the pressure of Judicial work upon the Commissioner grew so great that the appointment of a Judicial Commissioner became a necessity, and one of the first subjects which engaged that officer's attention was the necessity of organizing a Department to direct education, the germs of which were already apparent in Anglo-Vernacular Schools at the Division head-quarters, either managed by Government or materially subsidised. At the same time, the Commissioner recognized the necessity for conserving the forests of the country and for the more efficient and economical working of sandalwood from which Mysore has derived so constant and considerable a revenue.

Such, briefly and broadly stated, was the condition of affairs when Sir Mark Cubbon left Mysore in 1861. With the appointment of Mr. Bowring as Commissioner in 1862, the question of reorganizing the Commission on lines more nearly resembling administrations in British India became a pressing one. The time had come, as Mr. Bowring wrote, "when what may not inaptly be called the patriarchal system, *i.e.*, the concentration of all authority in the hands of one man must be considerably modified." The work had outgrown what one officer could control, the Superintendents of Divisions had been allowed to exercise great latitude of authority and had rarely been interfered with in District arrangements and consequently there was a great want of uniformity of practice in the different Divisions; the Divisions themselves too were so large that the Superintendents could no longer do their work efficiently. A Superintendent found himself either overburdened with details and routine work to the exclusion of matters of importance which had to be constantly set aside or he devoted his time and energy to his more important duties and left the routine work to be done by his ministerial officials.

Re-organization of the Commission in 1862.

To remedy the latter evil, the State was divided into eight Districts, each under a Deputy Superintendent (who in criminal matters was Magistrate of the District), the Districts being grouped into three Divisions, each in charge of a Superintendent; and to remedy the former, the action of all was guided and controlled by laws and regulations introduced with general effect throughout the State.

Regulation Period, 1863-81.

In revenue matters, the business was classified, rules of procedure were laid down and a uniform set of returns and registers was adopted. The Commissioner's circular

Land Revenue Administration.

on these points (No. 522-523 dated 8th June 1864) regulated the disposal of the subjects therein specified until the coming into force of the Land Revenue Code (Regulation No. IV of 1888) on the 1st April 1889 and of the Rules under the Land Revenue Code on the 22nd July 1890.

Revenue
Survey and
Settlement.

It was soon recognised that no progress could be made in equalizing the land revenue demand or even in ascertaining what it was and in extricating the accounts relating to it from the prevailing confusion without the aid of an accurate cadastral survey. As early as the autumn of 1863, a branch of the Revenue Survey of the Southern Mahratta country was introduced into the State. This Department, working on the model of the Bombay Revenue Survey and subsequently governed by Bombay Act I of 1865 and the rules framed thereunder, made steady progress in the introduction of Survey and Settlement into the taluks of the State.

Judicial
Machinery.

Under the reorganization effected in 1862-1863, the Judicial Courts in the State comprised :—

- (1) the Judicial Commissioner, who exercised the powers of Chief Court, with Criminal and Civil jurisdiction over the whole State ;
- (2) the Superintendents of Divisions ;
- (3) the Deputy Superintendents ;
- (4) the Assistant Superintendents, whose powers varied according to the qualifications they had acquired by passing the necessary examinations ; and
- (5) the Amildars.

Each of these officers exercised Civil, Criminal and Revenue jurisdiction except the Judicial Commissioner whose functions were restricted to Judicial, Police and Jail administration. The Sādar Adālat and the Munsiff's Courts were abolished.

The Kandāchār establishment of Mysore has been frequently described as a police establishment and sometimes it has been likened to a militia establishment; but to apply any such terms at all to it is misleading. It was, in fact, the last link in the chain of authority in the State. It consisted of men who were employed in carrying out the orders of Government. Part of their duties consisted in the carrying out of what is now recognized as Police functions; but they did all work which an Amildar required of them. When it was determined to reform the Kandāchār establishment, what was really attempted was the creation of a Police from the materials at hand. The first act was accordingly to detail from among the peons under the Amildar those who were to do Revenue duties, and those who were to do Police duties. This separation of functions, coupled with an increase in pay and a diminution of their numbers, was all that could be effected at the time of the revision. The further improvement of the Police thus created was recognized to be dependent on the resuscitation of the village police, and that was a measure which had to wait on the settlement of the Revenue Survey. Years therefore had to elapse before any general police organization could be attempted, and when in 1873 and 1874 such a scheme was carried out, it was in a great measure in advance of the reorganization of the village establishments.

The process indicated above affords the key to all the administrative changes that took place during this period. Not only among the lowest grades was this division of authority visible but in all. At the top, it was to be seen in the appointment of the Judicial Commissioner to relieve the Commissioner of Judicial and Police duties; and in the intermediate grades it was apparent in the officers appointed for Special Works, Forest Officers,

The keynote
of the
Reforms.

Educational Officers, Survey and Settlement Officers, Account Officers and Public Works Officers; the last being further divided into those who had only to do with Irrigation and those only with Roads and Buildings.

Subsequent
Development.

The subsequent development may be briefly described. Thus, in 1869, the Assistant Superintendents were relieved generally of Civil work and one "Judicial Assistant" was appointed for each district for that special duty. Then, during 1874-1875, Amildars were relieved of Civil jurisdiction and Munsiffs were appointed. Finally in 1879, when the Commission was being reorganized and simplified, in immediate preparation for the restoration of the country to His Highness the Mahārāja's rule, the Judicial Department was completely severed from the Revenue except in the case of the Deputy Commissioner who continued to be the District Magistrate.

Commissioners of Divisions (who had taken the place of Superintendents since the "Commissioner for the Government of the Territories of the Mahārāja of Mysore" had, in February 1869, given place to the "Chief Commissioner of Mysore") were abolished; and in revenue matters there were under the Chief Commissioner only the Deputy Commissioner of the District, his Assistant Commissioners and the Amildars. The Judicial Department consisted of the Judicial Commissioner as before, the District and Sessions Judge, the Subordinate Judge and the Munsiff.

Remodelling
of the
Administra-
tive
Machinery,
1878 to 1881.

The work of adapting an administrative organization, elaborated in accordance with the standard prevailing in British Territory, to the local requirements under circumstances involving financial pressure, proved no light one. It had, moreover, to be completed within the short

period of three years succeeding a famine of unprecedented severity.

Retrenchments had to be effected in all departments so as to balance income and expenditure and at the same time the most careful watch was necessary to ensure that no loss of efficiency resulted. The European officers in the higher grades of the public service, excepting a few Departmental heads and three others specially retained, had to be replaced by carefully selected Indians at lower rates of salary sufficient for a purely local service. The duties of the Inspector-General of Police had to be transferred to the Executive Head of the Administration to prevent the continuance of the anomaly of that office being held by the Head of the Judicial Administration. In further separation of the Judicial from the Executive Department, the Commissioners of Divisions were replaced by three separate Civil and Sessions Judges. The Military establishments had to be reduced to the actual requirements of internal protection. The Forest Department, which was expensive and not commensurately productive, had to be abolished as a separate agency and absorbed in the general administration. In the Educational Department, cheaper Indian inspecting agency had to be substituted for the more costly European, while in the Public Works Department considerable reduction of expenditure had to be effected by the partial introduction of Indian agency, by the abolition of a separate Irrigation Branch and by the concentration under one agency of control of both Local Fund and Imperial works. Side by side with these retrenchments was undertaken the construction from the revenues current of a State Railway from Bangalore to Mysore.

(c) *Since 1881.*

The form of administration continued to be virtually the same as under the British Commission but with a

Form of
Administra-
tion at the
Rendition.

preponderance of Indian Officers. At the head of the executive administration was the Dewan under whom, as President, was a Council composed of three members.

Subsequent
changes:
Dewan and
Council.

In 1889, it was decided that two members should sit regularly to hear and dispose of all revenue matters coming before Government in appeal or revision, which by the new Land Revenue Code were excluded from the jurisdiction of the Civil Courts. In 1895, the Council was reconstituted and a list was issued of additional subjects referred to the Council, giving it a more effective share in executive control. Certain departments were placed under each member and specific rules of business were laid down. In August 1902, on the termination of the Regency, the Dewan continued to be the Chief Executive Officer of the State; but the Executive Council of the Regency was replaced by a consultative Council, consisting of the Dewan and two Councillors, which was to advise the Maharaja on certain scheduled matters. Individually the Councillors had no powers of final disposal, but they were still in charge of certain Departments and in matters where the Dewan differed from them, the case had to be submitted to His Highness the Maharaja. The two Councillors also sat as a final Revenue Court of appeal in matters withdrawn from the jurisdiction of the Civil Courts under the Land Revenue Code. The Revenue Department which had till then been under the direct charge of the Dewan was placed under a Departmental head styled the Revenue Commissioner. In 1906, it was considered desirable to provide for a greater devolution of authority and the Councillors were empowered to pass final orders in the name of Government in all ordinary matters. In January 1914, the number of members on the Executive Council was increased from two to three in consequence of the appointment of His Highness the Yuvaraja as an Extraordinary

Member. In 1917, the membership of the Council, excluding the Extraordinary Member, was raised to three but in 1921, owing chiefly to financial reasons, the membership was reduced to two. In 1925, an Extra Member of Council was appointed and he was placed in charge of Education.

At the Rendition of the State in March 1881, there were in existence four Secretariats :—

The Secretariat.

- I. The Chief Secretary to Government in the General and Revenue Departments.
- II. The Secretary to Government in the Public Works Department.
- III. The Secretary to Government in the Education Department.
- IV. The Military Secretary to His Highness the Maharaja.

The developments which took place subsequently from time to time may be briefly noted.

In December 1891, the Muzrai Secretariat was newly formed, the Muzrai Superintendent being made *Ex-officio* Secretary. In February 1895, the work of the Secretariat Departments under the Chief and Legislative Secretaries was re-arranged and distributed between the Chief Secretary and a General Secretary. In June 1895, the office of Chief Secretary was abolished and a new officer called the Revenue Secretary was appointed in addition to the General Secretary. The appointment of Education Secretary was abolished with effect from 1st July 1895, the Department of Education being added on to the other Departments under the General Secretary. Simultaneously with this arrangement, an Inspector-General of Education was appointed to look after Education. In February 1896, the General and Revenue Secretariats were amalgamated and placed under one Secretary styled the "Secretary to Government, General and Revenue Departments." In July 1896, the State Geologist was appointed

Ex-officio Secretary to Government in the Geological Department. In April 1901, the office of Muzrai Secretary to Government was abolished, the Deputy Secretary to Government being placed in charge of the Muzrai duties. In April 1904, the Secretariat system was re-organized. The General and Revenue Secretariat was modelled after the Department of Revenue and Agriculture of the Government of India Secretariat. According to this scheme, the General and Revenue Secretariat was divided into five branches, each branch being a definite and self-contained working unit with its own records arranged on simple and intelligible lines under the disciplinary control of a Registrar. The Forest Secretariat was amalgamated with the General and Revenue Secretariat and the Muzrai Department was made an independent Secretariat under the charge of a responsible officer, with sufficient freedom to tour out and inspect Muzrai institutions, and with the help of his local knowledge to assist Government in the prosecution of their Muzrai policy. In 1908-09, however, the Muzrai and Military Secretariats were amalgamated with the General and Revenue Secretariat. In 1912-13, two additional Secretaries to Government, one for the Railway Department and another for the Departments of Education, Agriculture and Industries were appointed. In 1913-14, a separate branch of the General and Revenue Secretariat designated the "Efficiency Audit Branch" was constituted "to provide for more frequent and systematic inspections, to improve the Office Manuals and Standing Orders, and to ensure that the rules and orders in force are properly worked, or if not workable, promptly modified and to see that beneficent activities of every kind receive stimulus and that serious irregularities receive prompt attention." This branch was abolished in 1921. In 1914-15, the State Geologist and the Military Secretary to His Highness the Maharaja were relieved of their Secretariat functions. In 1915-16, an additional

Secretary to Government for the Revenue Department was appointed, the office of Deputy Secretary being at the same time abolished. In 1916-17, the Muzrai Superintendent was appointed Joint Secretary to Government in the Muzrai Department. In 1917-18, the Secretariats were re-organized and minor improvements introduced in their working. During 1923 and 1924, further changes were introduced and at present there are three Secretariats, *viz.*—

- I. The General and Revenue Secretariat,
- II. The Public Works Secretariat,
- III. The Financial Secretariat, and
- IV. The Railway Secretariat.

The administration at the Rendition was a highly centralized one, owing to the remodelling, under financial pressure, of the administrative machinery in the years 1878 to 1881. The Dewan had the direct control, without the intervention of Departmental Heads, of all the principal Departments, such as Land Revenue, Excise, Forests, Mining, Police, Education, Muzrai and Legislative. As the finances improved and as Department after Department was put into good working order and showed signs of expansion, separate Heads of Departments were appointed, for Forests and Police in 1885, for Excise in 1889, for Muzrai in 1891, for Mining in 1894, for Education in 1895, for Military in 1897-98, for Land Revenue in 1902, for Agriculture in 1912 and for Industries and Commerce in 1913. Thus, all the important branches of administration are at present presided over by Heads of Departments.

The Departments.

A scheme for recruiting, by the two methods of competition and nomination, young men of special attainments and merit to fill the higher appointments of the Executive and Judicial services of the State was introduced in November 1891. Competitive examinations

The Civil Service.

under the Civil Service scheme began to be held as required since the year 1892. The examination scheme has been amended from time to time.

The Representative Assembly.
(a) Its Early History.

The Representative Assembly, the popular institution of the State, dates from 1887. On the 29th March of that year, soon after the assumption of power by His Highness the late Maharaja Sri Chamarajendra Wadiyar Bahadur, took place the first meeting of any historic importance between the principal raiyats and merchants from all parts of the State and the Government for the purpose of discussing and exchanging views on public matters, under the presidency of Dewan Rangacharlu. This meeting resulted in the issue of an order dated the 25th August 1881, in which the nature and constitution of the Assembly was thus stated :—

“ His Highness the Maharaja is desirous that the views and objects which his Government has in view in the measures adopted for the administration of the Province should be better known and appreciated by the people for whose benefit they are intended and he is of opinion that a beginning towards the attainment of this object may be made by an annual meeting of the representative land-holders and merchants from all parts of the Province, before whom the Dewan placed the results of the past year's administration and a programme of what is intended to be carried out in the coming year. Such an arrangement, by bringing the people into immediate communication with the Government, would serve to remove from their minds any misapprehension in regard to the views and action of Government, and would convince them that the interests of the Government are identical with those of the people. This annual meeting will be conveniently held at Mysore, immediately after the close of the Dasara festival, which occasion will offer an additional inducement to those invited to attend the meeting.”

The principal object aimed at by bringing the Assembly into existence was thus stated by Dewan Rangacharlu in his inaugural address to it :—

"His Highness hopes that by this arrangement the action of the Government will be brought into greater harmony with the wishes and interests of the people."

The functions of the Assembly were, from time to time, declared to be—hearing from the Dewan the results of the past year's administration, and a programme of what is intended to be carried out in the coming year; submitting observations and suggestions in the public interest; bringing to the notice of Government the wants of the people and making known all their grievances, thus helping to remove them; watching and criticising the working of the administration; in short, attempting at a full representation of the wants and wishes of the people in matters of public interest. The functions of members were not to be regarded as mere petitioning or complaining. It was pointed out, in 1891, that the main object of the Assembly was to afford the people of the State an opportunity to represent their wants and grievances and not to give them control over the administration. Matters relating to the Constitution of the State were also held to be outside its purview, though it was "welcome to place before Government any matter relating to the details of the administration."

As regards the constitution of the Assembly, it was at first described to be a meeting of "the representative land-holders and merchants from all parts of the State." These were at first to be selected as follows:—The Local Fund Board were to select from among themselves and others of the district, the persons who were to represent their district. To represent the landed interests, from each taluk, one or two cultivating land-holders possessed of general information and influence among the people were to be selected by the Deputy Commissioners of Districts, and sent up, together with three or four leading merchants

(b) Its Constitution.

for each district generally, to represent their interests, also chosen by the respective Deputy Commissioners. The attendance at the meeting being entirely voluntary, the wishes and convenience of the persons invited were to be consulted. In 1887, a property qualification was fixed, the number for each district was fixed and the names of the Members were published in the official *Gazette*. Public Associations were also allowed to depute representatives. In the following year, it was definitely declared that Deputy Commissioners should make the selection themselves and not delegate the duty to Amildars or other subordinate officers. For the first time also, grounds of disqualification were laid down and lists of persons eligible were directed to be maintained for each district. In 1891, the privilege of election was conceded to those paying higher land revenue (Rs. 100 to 300) or *mohatarfa* revenue (Rs. 13 to 17), or owning alienated villages of higher value (Rs. 500 and more) and to graduates of Indian Universities residing in the Taluks. The number of representatives for each Taluk was also fixed, while the grounds of disqualification were better defined. Persons holding salaried appointments under Government were disqualified on the ground that the object of the Assembly was to elicit non-official public opinion. In 1894, the membership was made tenable for three years. In 1914, separate representation was allowed for sub-taluks. In 1915, those wishing to stand for election were required to announce their candidature in writing to the Amildar one month before the election. The question whether the members had any recognizable status either as a body or individually at other times was often raised both directly and indirectly in the Assembly, but the answers given to it on different occasions negative the view that they, individually or collectively, held any enduring status till the introduction of the constitutional changes which will be referred to later.

At first, no attempt was made at regulating the conduct of business relating to the Assembly. In the beginning, Members listened to the Dewan's Address, and afterwards made such observations and representations as they had to lay before the Government. In the very first year, some regulation was found necessary. Except when a member desired particularly to make a separate statement, the representatives from each district were directed to nominate one or two of their body to be their spokesmen. In 1887, a few simple rules for the conduct of business were promulgated. The members of each district were to choose the subjects in concert, hold a formal meeting at Mysore and nominate persons to speak on each subject. The subjects and speakers thus selected are to be made known to the Secretary to Government at least three days before the date fixed for the meeting. The order of discussion was to be fixed by the Dewan. These were definitely designed to render the discussions more useful and to give to the observations of members the authority and weight which the opinions of individual members could never be expected to possess. In August 1890, it was further ruled that the members for each Taluk were to meet and send a list of subjects that they wished to bring forward to the Deputy Commissioner, who was to forward them with his remarks to the Government; and that any additional subjects may be forwarded after the general meeting prescribed to be held at Mysore. Attempts were made from time to time by members to obtain the system of judging the strength of opinion in particular by a counting of votes. The matter was discussed at length in 1893. Dewan Sir K. Seshadri Iyer observed that the Assembly had no power of disposing of any question and that voting was therefore unnecessary. The request was repeated in regard to legislative matters only in 1896 with, however, the same result. From 1907 onwards the general sense of the Assembly on certain important

(c) Rules for
Conduct of
Business.

questions was ascertained by a rough counting of votes "for" and "against" the matters under discussion. In 1907, certain rules were framed to regulate the business at the meetings of the Assembly and to ensure that the discussion in it was concentrated on matters of real importance. It was directed that subjects to be discussed at the Assembly were to be previously considered and determined at a meeting held at the head-quarters of each district, under the presidency of the Deputy Commissioner concerned, so as to facilitate the elimination of subjects whose disposal was within the competency of local District Officers and Heads of Departments. Subjects which had been once disposed of were not allowed to be sent up except with the approval of a majority of the members. In 1915, a fresh order was issued to fix the number of subjects that may be sent up for discussion in the Assembly and to simplify their discussion in it. It was directed that the maximum number of subjects, both general and local, to be selected for discussion in the Assembly in any year be fixed at 75 for each of the Districts of Bangalore and Mysore and 50 for each of the remaining districts. The selection of the specified number of subjects was to be made on the basis of the number of votes secured for each subject at the preliminary meeting held by the Deputy Commissioners of Districts. Questions of general importance were to be preferred to purely local subjects. At the Assembly, priority was to be given to the discussion of important subjects, ordinary subjects being taken up afterwards and being "dealt with rapidly." A time-limit of fifteen minutes for each important subject and five minutes for each ordinary subject was also fixed to facilitate the disposal of the agenda.

(d) Stages in
its growth.

A few stages in the growth and progress of the Assembly may be noted. In the year succeeding its inauguration,

Dewan Rangacharlu complimented the members on "the moderation and practical good sense" which had characterised their discussions and drew attention to "the several measures of useful and necessary reform" which had resulted from them. In announcing the introduction of the elective element in the constitution in 1890, Sir K. Seshadri Iyer acknowledged the good work done by the Assembly. He said :—

"The moderation, the intelligence and the practical good sense which have characterised your discussions in the past years, the material help you have given the Government in the discussion of important questions and the sustained interest you have evinced in public affairs have convinced His Highness the Maharaja that the time has come when the wealthier and the more enlightened classes may, with safety, be left to themselves to choose the members of the Assembly."

His Highness the present Maharaja in opening in person the Assembly in 1903 referred to "the consolidation of a sense of common interest between the Government and the people" as "one of the conspicuous results of this Assembly." His Highness has marked his appreciation of its work by enlarging from time to time its sphere of usefulness. In 1908, the Assembly was granted the privilege of electing two of its members to the Legislative Council. By a rescript issued in October 1916, His Highness sanctioned the holding of a second session of the Assembly every year. In granting this privilege, His Highness remarked that the Assembly had "more than fulfilled the expectations which were formed at the time of its institution." This Session, originally held in April, is now convoked in June, soon after the Birthday of His Highness the Maharaja, and is devoted to the consideration of the Budget Estimates of the State. At the first April Session, held in 1917, the new procedure of investigating questions by means of Committees was also adopted. This procedure

was intended to facilitate the work of the Assembly "by placing before it concrete issues or definite recommendations formulated after a thorough study of the questions by members specially interested in them." Among the Committees thus appointed was one to discuss and report on the constitution and improvement of the Assembly itself. In passing orders on the Report, in April 1918, Government introduced certain changes in the constitution of the Assembly. First, they broadened the electorate by adopting for all taluks in the State a uniform limit of land revenue and *mohatarfa* qualification for voting of Rs. 50 and Rs. 10, respectively. Secondly, they abolished the distinction existing between the qualification for voting and for membering, thereby rendering it identical for both; and thirdly, they granted to the members of the Assembly the privilege of interpellating Governments on matters of public interest, subject to certain restrictions. In 1920, provision was made for bye-elections in the case of vacancies. Retired and pensioned officers of the Mysore State Troops were also given the privilege to vote for members as well as to stand for election to the Assembly. In the same year, the number of members to be returned by the Assembly to the Legislative Council was raised from 2 to 4, while 8 more were to be returned by direct election by the voters to the Assembly in the Districts.

(e) Constitutional changes of 1923.

(i) Their general nature.

The Assembly, it will be seen, owes its origin not to a legislative act or what would pass as its equivalent in this State, but to an executive order of Government. In keeping with its origin, changes in its constitution, powers and functions have also been introduced from time to time by similar executive orders. Under the constitutional changes introduced in the State in 1923, the Assembly has been placed on a statutory basis by the promulgation of a Regulation (No. XVIII of 1923) defining its constitution, powers and functions. The

provisions of this Regulation are outside the cognizance of the Legislative Council of the State. The Assembly has thus been given a definite place in the Mysore Constitution under the Regulation mentioned, and consists of members elected or nominated by Government in accordance with the rules made under it.

Membership is confined to non-officials, though Government officers, deputed for the purpose, may, from time to time, attend the sittings of the Assembly and take part in the proceedings, but cannot exercise the right to vote. The strength of the Assembly is limited ordinarily to 250 members, but Government have power to increase it up to a maximum of 275 for the purpose of removing inequalities, if any, of representation, and in order to provide for the representation of any new interests or constituencies that might be developed in future. Not less than 150 members ought to be representatives of rural areas, *i.e.*, of taluks and sub-taluks and the area comprised within the local jurisdiction of the Kolar Gold Field Sanitary Board constituted under Section 35 of the Mysore Mines Regulation (IV of 1906) ; not less than 30 and not more than 50 members ought to be representatives of urban areas, *i.e.*, of every City Municipality and every Town Municipality with a population of 5,000 and upwards; not less than 15 members ought to be representatives of approved special interests, *i.e.*, Mysore University, Legal Interests, European Planting, Indian Planting, Gold Mining, Trade and Commerce, Inamdars and other special interests, such as Factory Labour, Mining Labour, Industries other than Gold Mining etc., which may be recognized by Government as such; and not less than 35 members ought to be representatives of minorities. All members representing rural and urban areas ought to be elected by persons duly qualified under the rules framed for the purpose; representatives of special

(ii) Its composition.

interests by constituencies recognized by the Government for the purpose, or, in the absence of such constituencies, be nominated by Government and representatives of minorities by Associations recognized by the Government under the rules made in this behalf, or be nominated by the Government for the purpose of removing inequalities, if any, of representation. Subject to these conditions and restrictions, Government retain the power to make rules as regards the constitution of constituencies and the number of members to be returned by each. The following rules have been prescribed as regards Associations representing minorities and desirous of deputing members to the Assembly:—

(a) The Association must have been formed for the furtherance of one or more specific interests of the community or for the general advancement of the community:

(b) It should be registered under the Mysore Societies' Regulation;

(c) When any minority community has an Association with branches or has two or more such Associations, two or more of them, may, when necessary, be grouped together by Government for the election of the member or members to be returned by the minority;

(d) The number of members on the rolls of the Association or Associations should not be less than one hundred;

(e) Meetings of the general body or of the Managing Committee should be held at least twice a year and minutes of the meeting should be kept with the records of the Association. Whenever required to do so by the Deputy Commissioner, the Association should submit an annual statement of the number of meetings held and the number of members present,

(f) Bye-laws of the Association and all subsequent changes as and when they are made should be submitted to Government:

(g) The privilege of representation once granted to an Association is liable to be revoked during the term of an Assembly if the Association ceases to exist or infringes any of the conditions.

The same rules apply to Associations representing special interests with the further addition that Government may, for special reasons, allow an Association containing less than the minimum of one hundred members to depute a member to the Assembly.

The scheme outlined above is a development of what existed before the new changes were introduced on a more correct and scientific basis. It helps to avoid the overlapping which took place under the old order of things.

The Dewan is *Ex-officio* President of the Assembly, and the Members of the Executive Council are Vice-Presidents. The Dewan presides at all meetings of the Assembly and in his absence, the Senior Vice-President presides. The President or one of the Vice-Presidents, with seventy members, form the quorum. The normal duration of the Assembly is fixed at 3 years from the date of its first meeting. The term may, however, be extended by the Government for a period not exceeding one year. After dissolution, the next meeting should take place within six months from the date of dissolution.

(iii) President
and Vice-
Presidents.

The Assembly is vested with certain powers and exercises certain functions in regard to legislation, taxation, discussion of the Budget, interpellation, moving of resolutions and submitting representations on matters of public interest. As regards legislation, when any Bill is proposed to be introduced in the Legislative Council, the general principles underlying it should first be placed by the Government before the Assembly in the form of a statement, which may be accompanied or not by a draft Bill according to circumstances, and its opinion ascertained. This right, however, is subject to the proviso that it shall not apply in cases of extreme urgency in which the Government proposes that the ordinary rules of business of the Legislative Council should be suspended and the

(iv) Assembly's Powers
and Functions.

Bill passed at a sitting of the Council. Any member may propose an amendment to the general principles of any measure thus introduced in the Assembly. The President may disallow an amendment if it relates not to general principles but to details. As regards taxation, it has been provided that no new tax shall be levied unless the opinion of the Assembly as to its levy has been ascertained; also, no Bill for the levy of a new tax or the enhancement of an existing tax shall be introduced in the Legislative Council unless the opinion of the Assembly has been ascertained on it. The "extreme urgency" proviso in regard to Legislation does not apply to a Taxation Bill. "New tax" under the Regulation means any tax which requires for its imposition the passing of a new Regulation or the amendment of an existing Regulation. In regard to the annual Budget, it is provided that the estimated expenditure and revenue of the State shall be laid before the Assembly in the form of a statement and the Assembly is at liberty to discuss the same. The items of expenditure under the following heads are, however, outside the purview of the Assembly:—

(i) The Palace, including the staff and household of H. H. the Mahārāja;

(ii) The Military Forces of H. H. the Mahārāja;

(iii) The pensions of public servants;

(iv) The items of expenditure relating to or affecting the relations of H. H. the Mahārāja with the Paramount Power or with other States and matters governed by treaties, conventions and agreements now in force or hereafter to be made by H. H. the Mahārāja with the Paramount Power;

(v) Interest on Loans and charges on account of Sinking Funds guaranteed at the time of raising the Loans; and

(vi) Expenditure prescribed or authorized by law.

Resolutions on the Budget may be moved by members in the Assembly provided they have reference only to the general principles and policy underlying the Budget and not to any particular grants or appropriations included in

it. Suitable rules have been framed in regard to the moving of Resolutions, putting Interpellations and submitting Representations for the consideration of Government in the Assembly. The selection of subjects in regard to the exercise of these rights is made at meetings held at each of the District Head-quarters to which all the members of the Assembly residing in the District including representatives of special interests and minorities are summoned. As to the number of Resolutions that could be presented by each district, it has been thus fixed :—(a) During Dasara Session, Bangalore and Mysore Districts, 4 each ; during Budget Session (in addition to Resolutions on the Budget), two each. (b) Other Districts, during Dasara Session, 3 each ; and during Budget Session, 1 each. The Assembly has the right to divide on all questions on which its opinion is taken. As regards Representations on matters of public importance, the total number that may be brought up at the Dasara and the Budget Sessions has been fixed at 180 and 90 respectively. These are thus distributed among the several districts for the two Sessions :—

(a) Bangalore and Mysore Districts, during Dasara Session, 30 each ; and during Budget Session, 15 each. (b) Other Districts, during Dasara Session, 20 each ; and Budget Session, 10 each.

Finally, as regards Interpellations, the number that may be sent up for the Dasara and Budget Sessions from each District has been thus fixed :—

(a) Bangalore and Mysore Districts, 8 each ; (b) Other Districts, 6 each. Under each of these three heads—Resolutions, Representations and Interpellations—the President of the Assembly is empowered to admit additional items on behalf of special interests or minorities.

In the rural areas, the property qualification of voters and candidates has been reduced by one-half. This entitles persons paying land revenue or rent of not less

(v) Qualifications of voters and candidates.

than Rs. 25 per annum or municipal or *mohatarfa* tax of not less than Rs. 5 per annum and persons who own one or more entire inam villages with a *beriz* of not less than Rs. 725 per annum to be voters and candidates. All persons paying income-tax to Government are also qualified as voters and candidates. Women are also qualified to vote, provided they possess the qualifications prescribed for voters.

As regards urban constituencies, which under the new Reforms, take the place of Municipal and other bodies, the property qualifications of voters to the Assembly are the same as those of voters for the Municipal elections in the constituencies concerned. The other qualifications are the same as for the rural constituencies. Qualifications for membership and voting are the same.

As to qualifications of voters and candidates in the case of special interests, and minority communities, membership of an Association or other institution concerned is required, except that in the case of the University of Mysore, only Fellows are eligible to stand as candidates for the Assembly.

As to general qualifications applicable to classes of all voters and candidates, it may be added that no literary qualification is required of them; that they should be subjects of Mysore by birth or domicile; and that they should have resided in the Mysore State (outside the Civil and Military Station, Bangalore) for at least three years. Certain disqualifications apply both to voters and candidates. No person can vote or be voted for who is—

(1) under 21 years of age; or (2) of unsound mind; or (3) an undischarged insolvent or bankrupt; or (4) sentenced by a Criminal Court to imprisonment for six months or more or be convicted of an offence punishable with imprisonment for seven years or more; or (5) a dismissed Government servant. As to disqualifications (4) and (5), they will cease to operate after ten years from date of release or dismissal unless

the same is removed earlier by Government. In regard to candidates, two other disqualifications apply, one of which relates to sex and the other to service under Government. No person, therefore, can be a candidate who is (6) a female or (7) a Government servant, the term Government servant not including a Shanbhog (village accountant), Patel (village headman) or other hereditary officer.

Under the changes introduced, there are normally two Sessions of the Assembly, one called the "Dasara Session" held during the Dasara, and the other called the "Budget Session," held at such time of the year as might be most convenient for the proper consideration of the Budget. Provision is also made for the holding of one or more special sessions when the state of public business requires it. A special session can be summoned only for Government business. At the Dasara Session, the order of business is as follows :—

(vi) Sessions
of Assembly.

(a) The address of the Dewan-President; (b) Interpellations; (c) Government Business; (d) Discussion of Representations; and (e) Resolutions, the order in which they should be moved being decided by the President.

At the Budget Session, it is as follows:—

(a) Opening Speech of the President and presentation of the Budget; (b) Interpellations; (c) Government Business; (d) Budget discussion—(i) General debate on the Budget, (ii) Resolutions on the Budget; (e) Representations; (f) Other Resolutions, the order in which they should be moved being fixed by the President.

At a special session of the Assembly, the arrangement of business will be as the President directs. The duration of the Dasara Session is fixed at 8 sitting days and that of the Budget Session at 6 sitting days. The time fixed may be extended at the discretion of the President. Any business other than Government business left unfinished within the period fixed for it has been declared to lapse.

Legislative
Council.
(a) Its Early
History.

The Mysore Legislative Council was established in 1907 (under Regulation I of 1907) with a view to associate with the Government a certain number of non-official gentlemen qualified by practical experience and knowledge of local conditions and requirements to assist Government in making laws and regulations. In addition to the Dewan-President and the Members, who were *ex-officio* Members, the Council was to consist of not less than 10 and not more than 15 additional members to be nominated by the Government and of this number not less than two-fifths were required to be non-officials. The minimum and maximum number of additional members was increased to 15 and 21 respectively by Regulation I of 1914 and the maximum was further increased to 30 by Regulation II of 1919. The actual composition of the Council as last constituted consisted of 17 nominated members (official 12, and non-official 5) and 13 elected members (by District Municipalities 8, by the Representative Assembly 4, and by the Mysore University 1).

(b) Under the
Reforms
introduced
in 1923.

Under the Reforms introduced in 1923, the strength of the Legislative Council (Mysore Legislative Council Regulation, XIX of 1923) has been fixed at 50 members, exclusive of the *ex-officio* members. Members of the Council of H. H. the Mahārāja have been declared to be *ex-officio* members of the Council and the Dewan is *ex-officio* President of the Council. It has been statutorily declared that not less than 60 per cent of this total strength of 50 should consist of non-official members and that not more than one-third of the non-official members should be nominated, the other non-official members being elected representatives of various constituencies. In addition to this strength of 50, not more than two persons having special knowledge or experience of the matter of any particular Bill may be temporarily

nominated to the Legislative Council for the purpose of such Bill. Of the 50 seats, 28 are allotted to nominated members, (official, 20 and non-official, 8); and 22 to elected members (elected by urban areas, *viz.*, the City Municipal areas of Bangalore and Mysore, one each—2; elected by rural areas, *viz.*, the eight district constituencies, excepting the Cities of Bangalore and Mysore, one each 8; elected representatives of the following special interests: Mysore University, Commerce and Trade, Planting and Labour, one each—4; and elected representatives of the Representative Assembly, 8). The number of constituencies and the number of members to be elected by the Representative Assembly have been incorporated in the Legislative Council Regulation. The distribution of seats and like matters have been fixed by Rules made by Government under Section 6 of the Regulation. As regards constituencies representing special interests, the Mysore University constituency consists of the Fellows of the University. The Member to represent Commerce and Trade is for the present being returned by the Mysore Chamber of Commerce. The Member representing the Planting interest is elected by a constituency consisting of owners of estates of not less than 50 acres under Coffee, Tea, Cardamom or Rubber. If the Member returned by this constituency does not represent European planting interests, one of the eight seats reserved for nomination of non-official members may be given to a representative of the the European Planters' Associations in the State. Labour is represented by one member, who, pending the formation of a proper electorate, is being nominated by Government. The members deputed by the Representative Assembly are elected by the Assembly taking as a whole and without any restriction as to the candidates representing particular districts or divisions. As regards the eight seats reserved for nomination of non-official members,

these nominations are made by Government with a view to secure the representation of the depressed classes, child and women welfare, minorities, education, etc. In regard to minorities, two seats are guaranteed to the Muhammadan community. In the event of no Muhammadan being returned by election, two out of the eight seats are intended to be filled up by the nomination of two Muhammadan representatives deputed by recognized Associations. In the event of one Muhammadan being returned by election, the number nominated will be reduced to one. There will be no nomination of a Muhammadan if two or more Muhammadan members are returned by election. The same principle applies in the case of the Indian Christian Community except that only one seat is guaranteed to it. One seat is also guaranteed to the depressed classes on the same principle.

(c) Its Powers
and duration.

The Legislative Council was originally constituted for the purpose of making laws and regulations. Although other powers and functions were later assigned to it, legislation still remains its chief function. Subject to certain conditions, it is vested with the power of making laws and regulations. The position in this regard is practically identical with what was in existence before the new constitutional changes were introduced. No measure of any description can be introduced into the Council without the previous sanction in writing of the Dewan. As regards the general nature of the list of subjects which are excluded from the purview of the Legislative Council, it has been so framed as to admit of the discussion of all matters relating to the internal administration of the State, the only subjects precluded being those relating to the Ruling Family of Mysore, the relations of His Highness the Mahārāja with the Paramount Power and with other States and matters governed by treaties, conventions and agreements now

in force or hereafter to be made by His Highness the Mahārāja with the Paramount Power and the provisions of the Mysore Legislative Council Regulation, the provisions of the Mysore Representative Assembly Regulation (No. XVIII, of 1923) and such other matters as may, from time to time, be specially reserved by His Highness the Mahārāja for consideration by Government. Accordingly the constitutional powers and functions of the Legislative Council and of the Representative Assembly are outside the cognizance of the Council. Changes in their constitution can therefore be possible only by means of proclamations or Regulations promulgated by His Highness the Mahārāja independently of the Council. It has not been considered necessary to reserve any special powers to Government in respect of measures that might be required for the safety and tranquility of the State. In the unlikely event of the measures approved by the Council being considered by the Government to be not adequate for the due discharge of their responsibility, the dead-lock thus created could be removed by the exercise by His Highness the Mahārāja, at his pleasure, of his powers to frame laws independently of the Council. Similarly, in the event of the Legislative Council adopting, in any Bill, provisions or amendments prejudicial to the safety and tranquility of the State, the situation thus arising will be one to be met by recourse to the inherent powers of His Highness the Mahārāja. In respect of matters excluded from the cognizance of the Council, the Government may frame any measure required and every such measure, if assented to by His Highness the Mahārāja, is to have the force of law. In cases not excluded from the purview of the Council in which legislation is urgently required, Government may frame emergent regulations which, if assented to by His Highness the Mahārāja, will have the same force as a regulation passed through the Council

for a period of six months from the date of its promulgation in the official *Gazette*.

The duration of every Council constituted under the Regulation is limited to three years from the date of its first meeting. The term may, however, be extended by the Government by a period not exceeding one year. After its dissolution, the Government is to fix a date not more than six months from the date of dissolution for the next session of the Council. The times and places of meeting are fixed by the Dewan. The powers of the Council can be exercised only at the meetings of the Council at which the President or some one of the *ex-officio* Members and not less than one-half of the total number of members of the Council are present. All questions before the Council are determined by a majority of votes of the members present and voting, including the Dewan or *ex-officio* Member presiding. In any case of difference of opinion, whenever there is an equality of votes, the Dewan or *ex-officio* Member presiding has a second or casting vote.

Voting on
the Budget.

Among the additional powers exercised by the Council is the one of voting on the Budget. The privilege of discussing the State Budget, subject to certain conditions, was given to the Council in 1914 by Regulation No. I of that year. The power, however, extended only to a general discussion of the Budget and the Council had no power to submit or propose any resolutions on it. The power to vote on the Budget granted by Regulation XIX of 1923 is a measure of far-reaching importance. While resolutions adopted by the Council can have effect only as recommendations, voting (or refusing) a grant has a binding effect on the Government, which can be annulled only by the exercise of a specific power of the Government for a specific reason, *viz.*, the power of restoration if the Government consider the grant

necessary for the carrying on of any Department. Further, "voting by major heads" imposes an important limitation of the Government's powers of re-appropriation of sanctioned expenditure: since the grants are sanctioned by the Council under major heads, re-appropriation by the Government from one major head to another is no longer possible. Thus the Legislative Council, with its statutory non-official majority, exercises a large measure of control over the financial policy of the Government. Detailed rules have been framed for the discussion of the Budget by the Council including rules for supplementary and excess grants, and also specifying the major heads adopted for voting purposes. The procedure prescribed by the Regulation for the presentation of the Budget is contained in Section 13 of the Regulation. The estimated annual expenditure and revenue of the State is, under this Section, laid in the form of a statement before the Council in each year, and the proposals of the Government for the appropriation of revenues and other money in any year are submitted to the vote of the Council in the form of demands for grants. The Council assents or refuses to assent, to a demand, or reduces the amount therein referred to either by a reduction or by a deletion of any of the items of expenditure of which the grant is composed. This privilege is, however, subject to certain conditions. First, the Government have the power, in relation to any such demand, to act as if it had been assented to notwithstanding the withholding of such assent or the reduction of the amount therein referred to, if the Government considers that the expenditure provided for by the demand is necessary for carrying on of any Department or for the discharge of Government's responsibility. Secondly, the Government have the power in cases of emergency to authorise such expenditure as may, in their opinion, be necessary for the safety or tranquility of the

State or any part thereof, or for the discharge of Government's responsibility. Thirdly and finally, the proposals of the Government for the appropriation of revenues and other money for expenditure on the following heads need not be submitted to the vote of the Council, nor shall they be open to discussion by the Council:—

- (i) The Palace including the staff and household of His Highness the Mahārāja ;
- (ii) The Military Forces of His Highness the Mahārāja ;
- (iii) The pensions of public servants ;
- (iv) Expenditure—
 - (a) on matters pertaining to or affecting the relations of His Highness the Mahārāja with the Paramount Power or with other States ;
 - (b) matters governed by treaties or conventions or agreements now in force or hereafter to be made by His Highness the Mahārāja with the Paramount Power ;
- (v) Interest on Loans and charges on account of Sinking Funds guaranteed at the time of raising the Loans ;
- (vi) Expenditure for which the amount is presented by or under any law.

It will be seen that salaries are not excluded from the purview of the Council. This is a departure from what prevails in British India and this departure has been advisedly made. "The Government do not consider it necessary or desirable," it has been stated by Government, "to exclude the salaries of any classes of public servants from the vote of the Council as this would result in a considerable curtailment of the control over financial policy and administration which it is proposed to vest in the Council."

Resolutions
on matters of
general
Public
interest.

The right to discuss matters of general public interest, under certain conditions and restrictions, was first given to the Council by Regulation VI of 1919 and the necessary Rules in connection with it were issued on 15th August 1919. Under these Rules, any member could

ordinarily move not more than one Resolution at any Session of the Council and not more than twelve Resolutions in all could be moved at any Session. Under the new constitutional changes introduced in 1923, and the Rules framed thereunder, this right is retained, though as a result of the expansion of the Council the maximum number of Resolutions that could be moved at any Session has been automatically increased from 18 to 30. The order in which Resolutions are to be taken up for discussion is settled by ballot, by post or otherwise, if necessary. The President has, however, the power to give priority to any Resolution or postpone the moving of any Resolution for sufficient reasons.

The power to ask questions on matters of public interest or importance was given to the Legislative Council by Section 12A of the Legislative Council Regulation as amended by Section 7 of Regulation I of 1914. The maximum number of interpellations that could be sent up by any member was fixed at three and the maximum number that could be answered at a Session was originally fixed at 12. In December 1915 permission was given to any member who had asked a question to put a supplementary question for the purpose of further elucidating the matter. In February 1915, the total number of questions that could be asked at a single Session was raised from 12 to 20. Under the Rules framed under the new constitutional changes introduced, there is no restriction as to the total number of interpellations that might be put at a Session, except that no member shall put more than two questions, thereby raising the maximum number of interpellations that may come up at any Session to 60.

Interpellations on matters of Public interest.

During the period anterior to the Reforms of 1923, the qualifications of voters to the Legislative Council

Qualifications of voters and candidates.

were identical with those of voters to the Representative Assembly. In view of the difference in the functions and the powers of the two bodies, it has been considered that the franchise also should be different. Accordingly, the property qualifications to the Legislative Council have been fixed twice as high as those of voters to the Representative Assembly. In rural constituencies, the following persons are qualified to elect members to the Legislative Council :—

(a) Every person :

- (i) who is the registered occupant of land assessed to land revenue of not less than Rs. 50 per annum payable to Government ; or
- (ii) who is a *kadim* tenant paying an annual rent of not less than Rs. 50 per annum to the holder of an alienated village (including the Jagirs of Yelandur and Sringeri) to which the provisions of Chapters VIII to X of the Land Revenue Code have been applied ; or
- (iii) who pays annually *mohatarfa* tax or municipal tax of not less than Rs. 10 to a Municipal Council ;

(b) Every person who is the owner of one or more entire inam villages with a total beriz of Rs. 250 per annum and who ordinarily resides in the district ;

(c) Every graduate of a University who ordinarily resides in the constituency ;

(d) Every person who is a retired and pensioned officer (whether commissioned or non-commissioned) of the Mysore State Troops ;

(e) Every person who pays income-tax to Government.

In urban constituencies, the qualifications of voters are the same as those of voters in rural constituencies except that, in respect of property qualifications, the qualifications laid down for voters at Municipal elections are accepted in lieu of those prescribed for voters in rural constituencies of the Legislative Council. The constituencies representing special interests have been referred to above.

As regards property qualifications of candidates seeking

election to the Council in rural and urban constituencies, they are the same as for voters in them. A distinction is, however, made in regard to candidates who are graduates or are assessed to income-tax. Only graduates of an Indian or English University of not less than ten years' standing who have been resident in the constituency for at least three years previous to the election are eligible for membership. Similarly, only persons paying an income-tax of Rs. 100 and above are eligible to stand as candidates for the Council. As regards candidates standing for election in connection with the representation of special interests and the Representative Assembly, the qualification is membership of the body returning the candidates.

Under the Reforms introduced in 1923, Standing Committees consisting of members of the Legislative Council and the Representative Assembly have been appointed in an advisory capacity on the model of the Standing Committees of the Indian Legislature. There are at present three such Committees in existence. One of these has been framed in connection with the Railway, Electrical and Public Works Departments ; another in connection with Local Self-Government and the Department of Medicine, Sanitation and Public Health ; and a third in connection with Finance and Taxation. Government may at their discretion appoint additional Committees for other Departments or add other Departments to the existing three Committees. Each Standing Committee consists of six members. Having regard to the larger strength of the Representative Assembly and its preponderating non-official character as compared with the Legislative Council, four of the six members are drawn from it and the remaining two from the Legislative Council. These members are selected by Government out of a panel of fifteen members elected by

Standing
Committees

ballot by the Representative Assembly and ten members elected in the same manner by the non-official members of the Legislative Council. Detailed rules regarding the formation and working of these have been issued by Government and are in force.

Committee
of the
Legislative
Council on
Public
accounts.

To enable the Legislative Council to know to what extent its wishes, as expressed in its grants of demands, have been complied with, Government have sanctioned the formation of a Committee of the Council charged with the duty of scrutinising the Audit and Appropriation Reports of the Audit Department of Government and bringing to the notice of the Council all deviations from its intentions.

Economic
development
work.

Under the Reforms of 1923, the Advisory Boards connected with the Economic Development have been, in accordance with His Highness the Mahārāja's Proclamation dated 27th October 1923, re-constituted and continued in close relationship with the Representative Assembly and the Legislative Council. There are three of these Boards, one for Education, another for Agriculture, and a third for Industries and Commerce. A Conference of these Boards is held at least once a year under the presidency of the Dewan, and all the Members of the Boards, the Deputy Commissioners of Districts and such other persons as may be specially selected by Government are summoned for the Conference. The total number of members of the Conference is not to exceed 100. In the composition of the three Central Boards, provision has been made for the adequate representation on them of the Representative Assembly as well as of the agencies working in the districts, and of semi-official and private bodies devoted to economic work of any importance and of special interests. Provision has also been made for the periodical meetings of these

Boards. The representatives of the various interests and agencies are, as far as possible, elected. The Chairmen of the Boards are ordinarily Members of Council of His Highness the Mahārāja. As regards work in the Districts, economic development work has been made an integral part of the functions of the local self-governing bodies.

The development of local self-governing institutions in Mysore will be found traced in another part of this work (*vide* Part IV, Chapter III.). Local Self-Government is now regulated by : —

Decentralization and Development of Local Self-Government.

(a) The Mysore Municipal Regulation No. VII of 1906 as amended by Regulations No. IX of 1911, No. III of 1916, No. V of 1918, No. V of 1922 and No. IV of 1923 ; and

(b) The Mysore Local Boards and Village Panchayats Regulation No. VI of 1918.

Regulations Nos. V and VI of 1918 were passed to give effect to Government's policy of further developing Local Self-Government in Mysore, enunciated in their order dated 16th November 1916. These Regulations came into force on 1st July 1918. The main changes introduced by Regulation V of 1918 in Municipal administration are the abolition of municipalities constituted under executive orders, the classification of Municipal Councils into City, Town and Minor, according to their importance, the introduction of an elected majority in City Municipal Council and of an increased element in others, and the reduction of interference in their affairs by Government and by the Deputy Commissioners of Districts to the necessary minimum. Regulation No. V of 1922 authorized Municipal Councils, both Town and Minor, to levy an education cess for the promotion of primary education in the State. Rules were issued in the same year prohibiting Government servants from

standing as candidates for election as Presidents and Vice-Presidents of Municipal Councils. By Regulation No. VI of 1918, provision has been made for the creation of Taluk Boards and Village Panchayats, in addition to the District Boards with control over their own finances and the power to manage purely local matters. In 1923, the valued privilege of electing its own President was granted to the Bangalore District Board. The same right was conceded to the Hassan District Board, while all the District Boards have continuously had for some years non-official Vice-Presidents. Under the Reforms of 1923, the Representative Assembly having been assigned larger powers and functions, it was felt inconvenient on account of the large volume of business to be gone through that local subjects should not, as a rule, be allowed to be brought up before the Representative Assembly, but should be brought within the scope of District Boards by suitably enlarging the functions of those Boards. In accordance with His Highness the Mahārāja's Proclamation dated 22nd October 1923, Government directed the revision of the constitution, functions and powers of Municipal Councils, District and Taluk Boards and Village Panchayats with a view to give them the largest possible measure of responsibility and autonomy in the administration of local affairs. As the result of the work of a Special Officer appointed for the purpose, Government have now on hand necessary amendments to the existing Local Boards and Municipal Regulations in order to give full effect to the policy outlined above. Meantime, even under the existing Local Boards Regulation (Section 12), the Boards may pass Resolutions on any question connected with the administration of their respective Districts. Rules have been framed under this Regulation to facilitate discussion of questions of the nature mentioned and the submission of recommendations on them to Government.

All local subjects hitherto brought up for the consideration of Government in the Representative Assembly will in future be dealt with to the extent provided for by these rules by the local bodies concerned, including Municipalities.

The draft scheme in connection with the Local Boards and Panchāyat Regulation aims at the establishment and development of Panchāyats in the State. It seeks to abolish the existing Village Improvement Committees and in their place proposes the constitution of a Panchāyat for every village or group of villages in the State. In view of this introduction of a general Panchāyat scheme into all villages in the State and the unsatisfactory condition of the finances of Local Boards consequent thereon, it is proposed, not only as a matter of advantage but also as a necessity, to abolish all the existing Taluk Boards and allow the Boards a freer scope to attend to all the district, taluk and inter-taluk services under Sanitation, Communications, Medical relief, etc. As regards Municipalities, the more important improvements aimed at are the following :—

(1) The elected element in Minor Municipal Councils to be raised from one-third to one-half the strength of the Council ;

(2) Franchise to be extended to women to vote at elections ;

(3) The Presidents of City and Town Municipal Councils to be ordinarily elected and the election to be by the general body of voters instead of by the Municipal Councils concerned ; and

(4) Provision to be made for the inspection of Municipal Offices by Deputy Commissioners, the City Municipalities being excluded.

Bills embodying the above changes in the existing law have been introduced into the State Legislative Council and are now awaiting consideration.

SECTION II.—ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISIONS.

Territorial
Divisions and
Sub-Divisions

The system of administration is based on the British Indian model—which has its roots in the more ancient Hindu system—of repeated sub-division of territory, each administrative area being in the responsible charge of an officer subordinate to the officer next in rank above him. The highest administrative unit is the District; the next lower being the Sub-Division; the next the Taluk, which is followed by the Sub-Taluk, where it exists; this by the *hobli*; and this finally by the village. The State consists of eight Districts and sixty-eight Taluks (excluding the two *Jagirs* of Yelandur and Sringeri) and eight Sub-Taluks. Each Taluk is sub-divided into several hoblis. Each hobli consists of such number of villages as may be fixed by Government from time to time and every village or group of villages has such village officers—generally hereditary—as may be fixed by Government. The area of districts into which the State is primarily divided varies, Mysore being the largest and Hassan the smallest. The average Mysore District is about 3,750 square miles in area and contains a population of about 750,000. An average British District is about 4,430 square miles and the average population, 950,000. The average Mysore District is thus smaller than the average British Indian District, while in population it is proportionately less strong. The actual districts vary greatly in size and density of population. Thus, the Mysore District is 5,488 square miles in area and has a mean density of 255 per square mile; Chitaldrug District is 4,022 square miles in area and has a mean density of 138 per square mile; Tumkur District is 4,154 square miles in area, and has a mean density of 190 to the square mile; Shimoga District is 4,030 square miles in area and has a mean density of 122 per square mile; Kolar District is 3,179 square miles and has a mean density of

249 per square mile ; Bangalore District is 3,069 square miles, with a mean density of 295 per square mile ; Kadur District is 2,793 square miles in area and has a mean density of 120 per square mile ; and Hassan District is 2,641 square miles and has a mean density of 219 per square mile.

In 1834, when the British Commission was formed, the State was divided into the four Divisions of Bangalore, Nagar, Chitaldrug and Ashtagrām. As before stated, each of these was under a European Superintendent with Revenue and Judicial powers. When the Commission was re-organised in 1861, the State was divided into three Divisions each under a Superintendent and these again into eight Districts, each under a Deputy Superintendent. In 1869, when the office of the Chief Commissioner of Mysore was created, the Superintendents of Divisions came to be styled Commissioners and Deputy Superintendents, Deputy Commissioners. In 1879, when the Commission was once again re-organised in view of the restoration of the State to His Highness Krishna Rāja Wodeyar III, the posts of Commissioners of Divisions were abolished, with the result that under the Chief Commissioner there were only the Deputy Commissioners of Districts ; under them Assistant Commissioners ; and under them, Amildars. The present administrative Divisions accordingly date back to 1879, since when there has been little or no change in territorial divisions.

Commissioners of Divisions.

At present, in the Mysore State, there is no local officer above the head of the District, who is designated the Deputy Commissioner. He is the representative of the Government in the area under his charge and to him the people look for the redress of their grievances and for the promotion of their welfare. He is both the principal

The Deputy Commissioner-Magistrate.

revenue officer and the chief magistrate. As Deputy Commissioner he is concerned with the land and the land revenue. In this capacity, he is not only responsible for the assessment and collection of land revenue and the conduct of village establishments, but is also concerned with everything affecting the welfare of the peasantry. He supervises, as Collectors in British Indian Districts do, the compilation of the periodical returns of produce and prices; disposes of applications for loans for agricultural improvements; and settles disputes as between land-lord and tenant. He has also charge of the local administration of income-tax, excise, registration, stamp duty and other sources of revenue and is responsible for the management of the District Treasury into which the revenue and other public receipts are paid and from which all local disbursements are made. As District Magistrate, the Deputy Commissioner exercises the powers of a First Class Magistrate. His magisterial functions are referred to in some detail below.

In other branches of the administration, the Deputy Commissioner's responsibilities are limited by the existence of separate Departments, such as the Public Works, Forests, Commerce and Industries, Jails, Education, Medical and Sanitation, etc., which are directly represented by their own officials in the District. The active co-operation and counsel of the Deputy Commissioner is, however, even now constantly invoked in the settlement of various matters relating to these Departments. He guides Town and Minor Municipal bodies in his area, which are charged with the duty of raising local taxes and expend them on roads, sanitation, water-supply, education and other local needs. He is, except in Bangalore and Hassan, the President of the District Board, which, with the aid of Taluk Board, maintains roads, schools and dispensaries and carries out sanitary

improvements in rural areas from funds raised from local rates. The Deputy Commissioner's work is of a multifarious kind and is difficult of description. His duties normally correspond with those of a Collector in a British Indian District. He has to furnish information to Government on all important occurrences in his area; to advise Government on all general schemes under consideration; and to explain to the people committed to his charge all such orders and directions of Government as may not be easily understood by them. On certain occasions, his responsibilities are great. If a breach of the peace is apprehended as the result of strained feelings between communities or classes of His Highness' subjects or any aggression or other difficulty is likely to end in outrage, Government expect him to prevent it, and if necessary quell the disorder. During times of famine, Government expect him to watch the position carefully and keep them duly informed of it, and if necessary, organize and put in execution the requisite relief measures. He is, for these and other purposes, especially the due administration of his area, expected to move among and keep a living touch with the people inhabiting it and be easily accessible to them. He is, under the rules in force, to tour out in his district for several months in the year. These official rounds enable him to know the people and the people get opportunities to visit him and lay their grievances before him in their own places and without the aid of intermediaries. A Deputy Commissioner blessed with broad sympathies and with an insight into human nature may thus secure a hold on the people of his District, a hold which years would only tend to sanctify and not diminish. The singular fascination with which tales of old and forgotten Deputy Commissioners are told and listened to even now in the remotest parts of the Districts bears eloquent testimony to the good they wrought among them in days gone by.

Deputy Commissioner as District Magistrate.

As a Magistrate of the First Class, the Deputy Commissioner, in his capacity of District Magistrate can imprison for two years and fine up to Rs. 1,000; but in practice he does not try many Criminal Cases though he supervises the work of all the other magistrates of the District. He is, however, responsible for the peace of the District and the suppression of crime in it. He has general control over the police in his area. He is likewise responsible for the proper management of the District Jail in which short-term prisoners are confined, persons sentenced to long terms of imprisonment being lodged usually in the Central Jail at Bangalore.

Other District Officials.

In other branches of District administration, the Deputy Commissioner is assisted by a District Forest Officer and a District Superintendent of Police. Until recently, he had the help of a District Excise Officer as well. Mysore District has, as an exceptional case, two District Forest and two District Police Officers, and the Shimoga District, two District Forest Officers. Every District has, further, one or more Executive Engineers, District Medical and Sanitary Officers, who have also charge of the District Jails in their jurisdiction, and District Inspectors of Schools. The Deputy Commissioner and those directly connected with the administration of a District reside, while not on tour, at the headquarters station, which is usually the most important in the district. In it are located all the principal offices of the district, and the chief hospital, jail, and educational institution belonging to it and in most cases affiliated to the State University of Mysore.

Sub-Division Assistants, Hoblis and Villages.

For carrying on his many duties, the Deputy Commissioner-Magistrate is assisted by subordinate officers, some of whom work as his Assistants at head-quarters, while others hold charge of portions of the District designated

as Sub-Divisions. Below the Assistant Commissioners is the charge of Amildars and Deputy Amildars, one for each Taluk or Sub-Taluk, as the case may be. These are assisted by Shekdars in charge of *hoblis* comprising a number of villages and finally there are the village officers, the *Patels* and *Shanbhogs*, who help in the collection of revenue, keep the village accounts, the register of holdings and all other records relating to land revenue. Each village has also one or more village servants known as *Toti* or *Talavar*, *Nirganti*, etc., who assist the village officers in the revenue and police duties, in the regulation of water-supply from tanks and other irrigation works. The ancient village, still a living organisation, is thus linked in the last resort with the modern centralized machinery of Government. Much has been done in recent years in the State to improve life in the village, by fostering the growth of self-governing institutions in it.

In regard to the administration of justice, there is the Chief Court consisting of a Chief Judge and two Puisne Judges which is the highest Court for appeal and revision in all Civil and Criminal cases. Subject to it, are the three Sessions Divisions into which the State is divided, and called after Bangalore, Mysore and Shimoga, a Sessions Judge being located at each of these places. There are five Sub-Judges, four permanent and one temporary, and twenty-three Munsiffs (twenty-two permanent and one temporary), their territorial and other jurisdictions being regulated by the Civil Courts Regulation I of 1883 (and amending Regulations) and the Rules framed thereunder.

Judicial
divisions

In accordance with the scheme for the separation of the Judicial and Executive functions which was introduced in the year 1919 and has been gradually extended all over the State, there are now in each District besides the

Deputy Commissioner and District Magistrate a number of Special Magistrates exercising powers of first or second class Magistrates who are entrusted solely with magisterial work and do not exercise any revenue or other powers. In addition, there is a large number of Bench Courts at the rate of one or more for each taluk, presided over by Honorary Magistrates. The Revenue Assistant Commissioners and Amildars are *Ex-officio* Magistrates. They do not, however, try criminal cases but only exercise certain powers under the preventive Sections of the Criminal Procedure Code.

There are whole-time Magistrates for the Cities of Bangalore and Mysore and the Kolar Gold Fields.

On 1st July 1925, there were in the State 127 Courts in all, besides the Chief Court, consisting of the Courts of three Sessions Judges, three Assistant Sessions Judges, one Additional Assistant Sessions Judge, eight District Magistrates, 16 First Class Magistrates, 22 Second Class Magistrates, two Third Class Magistrates and 72 Benches of Magistrates. There was roughly one Criminal Court for every 232 square miles of the country and 46.133 inhabitants.

There are also, at present, four Justices of the Peace in the State, two of whom are in Bangalore (the Chief Judge of the Chief Court and the Inspector-General of Police in Mysore) and the other two in the Kolar Gold Fields (Special Superintendent of Police and the Chief Inspector of Mines). Only European British subjects are brought to trial before Justices of the Peace. Justices of the Peace in the State are invariably European British subjects.

The Government Law Officers include a Government Advocate, who appears for Government in its cases and sometimes conducts prosecutions in Sessions trials, and three Public Prosecutors, one for each of the three Sessions Divisions. The Secretary to Government in

the Legislative Department discharges certain of the functions of a Law Officer, analogous to those of a Legal Remembrancer in British India.

A scheme for the separation of Judicial and Executive functions referred to above was introduced in the beginning of 1919 in the Districts of Bangalore and Shimoga. On 1st January 1920, the scheme was extended to Mysore and Kadur, and in 1923 to Kolar, in the succeeding year to the Districts of Hassan and Tumkur. In July 1925, it was extended to Chitaldurg District. Briefly put, the scheme divests the Revenue officers of their judicial functions and constitutes a separate magistracy. A stationary magistrate of the rank of Munsiff is, under it, appointed for every two or three taluks to dispose of second and third class cases, and a magistrate of the status of Subordinate Judge in every district head-quarter town to try first class cases. These Special Magistrates form a separate branch of the judicial service. Assistant Commissioners in charge of Sub-Divisions and Amildars no longer deal with criminal cases, but they are *ex-officio* Magistrates and exercise emergency police powers connected with the maintenance of peace. The Deputy Commissioners, however, retain the powers of District Magistrate. They retain their appellate powers and powers of revision and superintendence. They are not, however, expected to try any original criminal cases other than such as for special reasons may be withdrawn by themselves or transferred to their file from the Courts of other Magistrates. As regards appellate work also, the Special Magistrates, First Class, are duly empowered to hear appeals from the decisions of 2nd and 3rd Class Magistrates, wherever the original work is not inconveniently heavy. Under the scheme, to each district is assigned one Special 1st Class Magistrate who, in addition to original cases

Scheme for the separation of Judicial and Executive functions.

triable by a 1st Class Magistrate, also disposes of such appeals as he may be empowered to hear. The Courts of Special Magistrates of the 1st Class, under the scheme, are located at the head-quarters of the various districts. District Magistrates are expected to equalize the work of these Courts, as far as practicable, by occasional withdrawals and transfers of cases. The conditions prevailing in the Kolar Gold Fields being exceptional, the scheme does not divest the Special Magistrate there of the executive powers vested in him.

The object of the scheme, involving an additional expenditure of over Rs. 1½ lakhs per annum, was to obtain a speedier disposal of criminal cases and the more efficient performance of the Revenue work of the State, on which the convenience and well-being of the rural population so largely depend. As to the utility of the scheme, though opinion was at one time divided, there is no doubt that, despite minor inconveniences, the new arrangements are a decided improvement upon the old system.

Trial by Jury. The system of trial by jury was at first tentatively introduced in the Bangalore and Mysore Districts in 1917 and in the succeeding year directed to be continued until further orders. In 1922, it was extended to the districts of Tumkur and Kadur. Its extension to the Kolar and Shimoga Districts was given effect to from January 1925.

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CHAPTER II.

LAND REVENUE DEPARTMENTS.

SECTION 1.—(i) LAND REVENUE ADMINISTRATION.

Introductory. THE revenue from land forms, as elsewhere in India, the mainstay of the Government and the sheet anchor of the financial administration. For the purposes of this chapter, it will be sufficient to sketch the history of land revenue administration from 1831, the history from the earliest times to 1831 having been dealt with in Part II (*Historical*). The land revenue which was about 44 lakhs in 1833-34 rose to 113·25 lakhs in 1923-24 and it is the object of this section to trace the successive stages in this growth and the several changes in the organization of the agency responsible for its collection. For a clear grasp of the reforms effected and the progress made from time to time, it is further necessary to divide this long interval into three periods.

(i) 1831-62, this being characterized by the reforms of Sir Mark Cubbon.

(ii) 1862-1881, this being marked by the initiation and progress of the Revenue Survey and Inam Settlements.

(iii) 1881-1924, this period being distinguished among other things for the passing of the Land Revenue Code and Rules thereunder and the appointment of the Revenue Commissioner as the Head of the Department.

Period from
1831 to 1862.

During this period, the province was under the patriarchal rule of Sir Mark Cubbon and the four Superintendents of Divisions. The Revenue system followed, as directed by Lord William Bentinck, was the Raiyatwari which was brought back as far as possible to the

state in which it was left by Dewan Purnaiya. No heroic remedies were attempted; but the system was liberalized in all its details and vigilantly superintended in its working, the money rents being lowered wherever necessary and the payments being made in five instalments fixed with reference to the times of harvest. Where the batayi system (or that of equal division of the crop between Government and the husbandman) was found to be in force, efforts were made with a considerable degree of success to convert it into a money payment. Where, however, the system could not be abolished, it was purified of its vexatious characteristics.

The system of mohotarfa taxation was revised and a number of petty taxes were abolished. For further information relating to the system of revenue administration during this period, reference may be made to the works cited in the *Bibliography*.

With the advent of Mr. Bowring as Commissioner in February 1862, a period of strenuous reform set in. In accordance with the general scheme of reorganization introduced in 1862-63, the Province was divided into three Divisions which were sub-divided into eight Districts. Each Division was placed under a Superintendent with enlarged powers and each District in charge of a Deputy Superintendent aided by Assistant Superintendents, their number being regulated by the requirements in each of the Districts. Each of the Districts was further divided into a number of taluks, graded into five classes according to their extent and revenue. In November 1863, the Revenue Survey and Settlement Department was organised, the Inam Commission being set on foot in 1868. The far reaching character of these reforms can only be realised by bearing in mind that the modern system of land revenue administration rests mainly on the recorded results of the operations of these two departments.

Period from
1862 to 1881.

In June 1864 a comprehensive Revenue Circular was issued for systematizing revenue procedure and correspondence and regulating the disposal of revenue cases and records. In March 1868 a Committee on the survey system was convened in Bangalore, the forms of village accounts and the form of the survey guarantee being among the matters dealt with by it. Another Committee on irrigation matters was held in Bangalore in January 1869 for discussing the Note of the Inspector General of Irrigation Works and for dealing with the questions regarding the restoration and subsequent maintenance of irrigation works.

This was soon followed by the promulgation, with suitable changes, of Bombay Acts I of 1865 and IV of 1868 and by the framing of the survey and settlement rules thereunder.

Reforms from
1870 to 1881.

During the administration of Sir R. Meade, the system of placing Assistant Superintendents in charge of groups of taluks was introduced in 1871; the object being to bring Government Officers into closer communication with the people and to give the Assistant Superintendents a greater interest in their work; but this was abolished in 1879 in giving effect to the retrenchment scheme devised after the famine of 1876-77.

Among the other reforms of this period may be mentioned the passing in 1874 of the Potgi Rules (providing for the remuneration of patels and shanbhogs in cash) and the promulgation in 1878 of the rules for the remuneration in kind of the minor village servants in the Nundidrug Division. These rules were more or less the offshoots of the introduction of the revenue survey and settlement. The question of substituting an acreage assessment for *halat* on coffee lands was discussed during the administration of Mr. Dalvell and Sir J. D. Gordon but was not finally disposed of till 1882.

Statistical Statement No. I exhibits the collections under land revenue from 1831 to 1881.

Review of the
fluctuations
of the Land
Revenue from
1831 to 1881.

It will be seen from these that till 1847-48 the revenue realized from land was subject to considerable fluctuations. In that year, there began a steady course of increase which continued without interruption till the famine of 1876-77. In 1847-48 the revenue realized was 53½ lakhs; 54 lakhs was the average of 1854-55, 1855-56 and 1856-57 when a change in the financial year disturbed the actual collection of any one year. The next remarkable rise was in 1857-58 to 59 lakhs and in 1859-60 to 66¼ lakhs due to the steady maintenance of higher prices since 1855-56 and to better means of communication. In 1863-64 the large figure of 71 lakhs was reached and it increased to 73 lakhs in the next year. The prices of all agricultural produce began to rise in 1863-64 owing to the unusually large exports of grain to the northern districts of the Madras and Bombay Presidencies, where the impetus for the cultivation of cotton which realized unprecedentedly high prices induced the agriculturists of these districts to neglect the cultivation of food grains and to draw their supply from Mysore. The revenue practically remained at 73 lakhs till the famine of 1876-77; for, the average of 1866-67 and 1867-68, when the financial year was again changed, was only 73¾ lakhs. The realization of 77 lakhs in 1865-66 and 1868-69, the decrease to 61¼ lakhs in 1869-70 and to 60 lakhs in 1870-71 and the increase to 83 lakhs in 1874-75 were exceptional, the first being due to the unusually large *Batayi* cultivation in the Kolar and Tumkur Districts, the second being due to the alteration of the khists whereby 35 per cent of the revenue did not fall due till after the close of the financial year and the third being due to the reverse process of bringing within the official year ending 31st March the instalments of April and

May. Owing to the famine, the revenue fell to 51 lakhs in 1876-77 and to 43 lakhs in 1877-78. In the three following years, a sum of 45 lakhs on account of the arrears of revenue postponed during the famine was collected so that the average revenue of the five years from 1876-77 to 1880-81 was only 66 $\frac{3}{4}$ lakhs. The growth and fluctuations of the land revenue may also be studied by taking the average for quinquennial and decennial periods. Thus, the average for the five years ending 1835-36 was 44 lakhs and for each of the four next decades 50 $\frac{1}{4}$, 53, 67 $\frac{1}{2}$ and 72 $\frac{1}{4}$ lakhs, while for the five years ending 1880-81 the average was 66 $\frac{3}{4}$ lakhs.

Period from
1881 to 1917.

Instead of narrating the reforms of this period chronologically, it would be conducive to clearness if the sketch is made to centre round a few important headings during the administration of each Dewan.

The main reforms effected by Dewan Rangacharlu in the Revenue Department were the revision of Civil Administration Division (dealt with in detail in Chapter I) and the introduction of acreage assessment on coffee lands (described in the section on Revenue Survey and Settlement).

The outstanding reform of the first decennium of Dewan Sir Seshadri Iyer's administration was the passing of the Land Revenue Code and the rules issued under it. The subject is so important that the discussions connected with the enacting of the Land Revenue Regulation will be summarized in some detail.

The
introduction
of the Land
Revenue
Code.

During the British Administration of the Province, it was intended to frame a Land Revenue Code for Mysore before the Rendition, but owing to various causes the measure had to be postponed. In December 1880, the Chief Commissioner reported to the Government of India as follows :—

“ A formal Revenue Code superseding the existing complicated rules on the subject has yet to be framed ; a recasting and codifying of the existing laws may also be required. The Chief Commissioner will do what he can in the matter within the next few months, but there can be no objection to the work being left to be completed by the native administration.”

Accordingly in the beginning of 1882, the work was entrusted to a special officer who, after an examination of the rules existing in the Province and the laws elsewhere in force, formulated proposals for the Mysore Revenue Code and reported that the Revenue Laws then in force in Mysore were in a very unsatisfactory condition, consisting partly of Bombay Acts I of 1865 and IV of 1868 and of the Guarantees and Rules published thereunder and partly of executive orders passed by the Chief Commissioner either for general guidance or as decisions in particular cases. It was thereupon decided that such a code might with advantage be based upon the Bombay Land Revenue Code, 1879, with the modifications called for by local circumstances. This decision was mainly due to the fact that the Bombay system of Revenue Survey and Settlement had been in force in the Province since 1869 and that the rules framed under that system had been found to work satisfactorily.

The first draft of the Code was accordingly framed and published in September 1883. It was then referred to a Select Committee for examination and report; important portions of it came under discussion at the Representative Assemblies held in 1883 and 1884 and the opinions of all Revenue and Judicial Officers were obtained and considered. The report of the Select Committee and the opinions of the officers consulted were carefully considered by the Mahārāja's Council and a revised draft was adopted as the result of such discussions and the same was published in August 1885 for public information.

A few further alterations were subsequently found necessary and after consideration of the opinions of the Members of Council and of the original Select Committee, the final draft was sent to the Government of India in September 1886.

This draft underwent a few more modifications and was finally agreed to by the Government of India in November 1888, the Regulation being promulgated as No. IV of 1888 and coming into force on 1st April 1889.

This Regulation has been frequently amended as shown below by :—

- (1) Regulation No. I of 1891.
- (2) Do III of 1892.
- (3) Do VI of 1905.
- (4) Do VI of 1906.
- (5) Do I of 1909.
- (6) Do V of 1912.
- (7) Do II and VIII of 1916.
- (8) Do I and VII of 1919.

Other reforms
of Sir
Seshadri Iyer.

The other revenue reforms effected during the administration of Sir K. Seshadri Iyer may be briefly summarized as follows :—

- (a) Changes necessitated by the passing of the Land Revenue Code.
- (b) The introduction of the Mysore Civil Service Scheme.
- (c) Reduction of the malnad garden assessment.
- (d) Revision of the District and Taluk establishments.
- (e) The passing of certain important Revenue Regulations.

Each of these major headings will now be dealt with in the order above given.

(a) *Changes necessitated by the passing of the Land Revenue Code.*—Advantage was taken of the introduction of the Land Revenue Code to inaugurate in May 1889 a system for the regular hearing and disposal by two Members of Council of important revenue cases coming

before the Government in appeal or revision ; and this system has now been in operation in all essential respects for about thirty years.

In July 1890 a collection of rules framed under the Land Revenue Code and including a Manual of village accounts among the appendices was issued ; and in 1892, the Khistbandi (or instalments for payment of land revenue) was postponed by two months (*i.e.*, till the end of May) so as to enable the land-holders to dispose of their produce on advantageous terms, the financial year being simultaneously changed so as to end on 30th June instead of on 31st March.

(b) *The introduction of the Mysore Civil Service Scheme.*—In November 1891, the Mysore Civil Service Scheme providing for the recruitment of Probationary Assistant Commissioners by a competitive examination and by selection from the lower ranks of the service or otherwise was sanctioned by His Highness the Mahārāja along with the formation of three revenue Sub-Divisions (in addition to the French Rocks Sub-Division) under separate officers for promoting the convenience of the people in the more distant taluks and for the training of future Heads of Districts.

(c) *Reduction of the Malnad Garden Assessment.*—As, for several years past, there had been complaints of the heaviness of the assessment on areca-nut gardens in the Malnad, the Government deputed a special officer in 1891-92 to enquire into the matter and, after considering his report, sanctioned in August 1896 the reduction of the garden land-tax in the malnad (*i.e.*, in the four important areca-nut producing taluks of Sorab, Sagar, Nagar and Koppa) to the rates in force in the Tirthahalli Taluk which were acknowledged by all concerned as moderate and equitable in every way. This measure of relief involved the foregoing of 22 per cent of the areca land-tax, the amount foregone being Rs. 83,480.

(d) *Revision of the District and Taluk Establishments.*—The District and Taluk Revenue establishments which had practically continued on the scale fixed in 1862-63 were revised from 1st May 1897, both as regards number of hands and scale of salaries, the classification of taluks being simultaneously revised and the net increase of cost on account of the revision amounting to Rs. 84,438 rising to Rs. 1,49,730 per annum.

(e) *Important Revenue Regulations.*—The Land Improvement Loans Regulation (IV of 1890), the Land Acquisition Regulation (VII of 1894) and the Sringeri Jagir Inam Settlement Regulation (IV of 1897) were passed into law during this period. The scope of the last Regulation is briefly described in Section II of this Chapter, the other two Regulations being dealt with in the Revenue Manual.

The
Administra-
tion of Sir
P. N. Krishna-
murti.

The body of rules framed under the Land Revenue Code and first published in July 1890 was thoroughly revised and issued in July 1901, the Manual of Village Accounts for the use of Village Officers being simultaneously revised but published in 1902. This was followed by the appointment in August 1902 of the Revenue Commissioner as the Head of the Revenue Department, by the introduction in 1903-04 of a scheme for the devolution of larger powers and responsibilities on the Assistant Commissioners in charge of taluks, by the reorganisation in February 1904 of the Shekdari service at a maximum additional cost of Rs. 62,520 and by the revision in March 1905 of the form of the survey guarantee so as to define in clearer terms the customary obligations of the raiyats in regard to irrigation works after the introduction of the revision settlements.

The Adminis-
tration of
Mr. V. P.
Madhava Rao
(1906-09).

(a) *Revival of the Mysore Civil Service.*—Mr. Madhava Rao devoted much attention to the introduction of a

large number of measures calculated to improve administrative efficiency. His regime from this point of view may be said to have begun with the revision of the rules regulating the recruitment to the Civil Service and to have closed with the passing into law of the Village Officers Regulation (IV of 1908). Under the revised Civil Service Rules, the competitive examination for the Mysore Civil Service which had been in abeyance for some years was revised and officers of all the non-technical Departments (including the Police, Survey, Excise and Accounts Departments) were graded into one list, thereby rendering them equally eligible for promotion to the highest positions in the State.

(b) *The Revenue Commissioner.*—The powers and responsibilities of the Revenue Commissioner were enhanced in a variety of ways, he being made the chief controlling revenue authority subject to Government and the Land Revenue Code being suitably amended. The Revenue Commissioner while continuing to be *ex-officio* Director of Statistics, was also made *ex-officio* Famine Commissioner until a whole-time Famine Commissioner was appointed, when necessary. He was further made responsible for the efficient administration of treasuries, the Comptroller's function being confined to audit and accounts, and was also given a voice in the settlement of questions having a direct bearing on the welfare of the people in the immediate neighbourhood of forests. For the dissemination of correct information on revenue and agricultural matters, the issue of the "Revenue and Agricultural Gazette" under the immediate supervision of the Revenue Commissioner was sanctioned.

(c) *Assistant Commissioners.*—A scheme was sanctioned for giving a training to Assistant Commissioners in the details of treasury work and procedure before they were put in charge of treasuries.

(d) *Amildars*.—Revised rules were issued for the selection of eligible candidates as Amildars and Deputy Amildars, the selection being confined to the Revenue, Police, Judicial, Registration, Excise, Survey and Inam Departments and the General and Revenue Secretariat, the Public Works, Medical and other branches being excluded. With a view to induce greater attention being paid to out-door work, the grant of travelling allowance to Amildars and Deputy Amildars when touring within their taluks, which hitherto they were not receiving, was sanctioned.

(e) *Shekdars*.—The rules in regard to the recruitment to the Shekdari service (corresponding to Revenue Inspectors in British India) were revised so as to provide for a lower educational qualification (*i.e.*, the Lower Secondary Examination) in the case of Muhammadans and other backward classes and for the existing Shekdars qualifying for admission to the new grades. A school for training Shekdars in surveying, drawing and minor engineering was opened at Bangalore.

(f) *Village Officers*.—With the view of shutting out the very inefficient from these offices, standards of qualification comprising certain easy tests were prescribed in 1906 for patels and shanbhogs. The Village Offices Regulation (IV of 1908) the draft of which had been under consideration prior to the Rendition was subsequently passed into law, *i.e.*, on 16th October 1908, after a thorough discussion of the principles in the Legislative Council.

(g) *Revenue Department*.—Revised rules were issued to regulate the appointment and promotion of ministerial officers in the Revenue Department. The chief features of the new rules were that the qualifications required for the different kinds of appointments were definitely indicated; that clerks in the taluk offices were given prospects of promotion to the office establishments of

Deputy and Assistant Commissioners; that a number of appointments of Taluk Sheristedars were reserved for qualified taluk head gumastas and shekdars; that in giving promotions preference was given to those who had passed the prescribed tests; and that heads of offices were required to maintain registers of applications for admission to the service. In regard to ministerial appointments in the Treasury, the passing of the Accounts Test was prescribed as a necessary qualification.

(h) *Probationers*.—In order to define clearly the principles to be adopted in future for appointment as Revenue or Judicial Probationers, it was laid down that the appointments in question were intended solely to meet the exceptional cases of persons who, besides being in themselves duly qualified for entering the public service, were also the descendants of those that had rendered distinguished service to the State in the past and who were therefore in His Highness' opinion deserving of being started in the public service otherwise than through the ministerial ranks.

(i) *Record-sorting in Revenue Offices*.—An Assistant Commissioner was placed on special duty for supervising the sorting of records in Taluk and District Offices which had been going on since 1903 and co-ordinating the work of the different offices on a uniform plan.

(j) *Development of the Malnad*.—The halat or excise duty on areca-nut which had pressed heavily on the chief industry of the Malnad portions of the State was abolished in March 1907, the levy of a supari cess being simultaneously authorized to provide a fund for the scientific investigation of areca garden problems such as those connected with areca-nut cultivation, diseases to which areca-nut is liable and the like. The survey settlement of the Sringeri Jagir which had been begun in 1901 was completed in 1907.

Administra-
tion of Mr. T.
Ananda Rao,
1909-12.

Schemes were sanctioned for the training of Amildars and Village Officers (patels and shanbhogs) in survey work. The Mysore Civil Service Examination Rules were revised in various respects and chiefly so as to restrict the examination to candidates who were either Mysoreans by birth or domicile or who had taken their degrees from one of the Mysore Colleges.

Provision was made therein for the practical training of the Civil Service Probationers in the various branches of the Taluk and District Administration.

The granting of travelling allowances to taluk officials for tours on official duty was sanctioned. The revision of the District Office (Revenue) establishments was completed but was not given effect to till 1913-14.

Administra-
tion of Sir M.
Visvesvaraya,
1912-1918.

The large number of measures introduced during this period for improving the revenue administration may be classified as follows :—

- (a) The Village Improvement Scheme.
- (b) Scheme for the holding of District and Taluk Conferences.
- (c) Decentralization in and reorganization of the Revenue Department.
- (d) Other reforms.

The Village
Improvement
Scheme.

In February 1914, the introduction of the Village Improvement Scheme mainly through the agency of a Panchāyet was sanctioned as an executive measure to be embodied in statutory form later on by the Local Boards and Village Panchayets Regulation, VI of 1918. In December 1914, a scheme for the creation of large landed estates out of the large extent of culturable assessed waste lands in each district was introduced on the initiative of the Economic Conference; and this was followed in 1918 by the throwing open for cultivation of

a large extent of Amrut Mahāl Kāval lands (1,25,000 acres) by the Amrut Mahal Department.

In December 1916, the Government sanctioned a scheme for the holding of annual conferences (District and Taluk) for the preparation or revision of the list of the major and minor wants of each Taluk and of the District, and discussion of the means of providing the same, for discussing and remedying local grievances, and for examining the progress made in the working of the special schemes; and this was followed in March 1917 by the issue of instructions for the holding of a conference of the principal departmental officers employed in the districts for the purpose of discussing the district wants and questions, especially those in which officers of more than one department are interested.

District and
Taluk Con-
ferences.

With a view to improve the standard of efficiency in taluk offices, the taluk revenue establishments were revised in September 1913, the scales of pay being generally raised and the financial effect of the revision which took effect from 1st January 1914 being a net increase of about Rs. 43,756 in the annual recurring expenditure. This was followed three months later by the revision of the District Revenue Establishments, the revision taking effect from 1st January 1914 and the main features of the revision being a net increase of about Rs. 6,900 in the annual recurring expenditure and the prescribing of the passing of certain tests in the case of special classes of District Officials. In July 1916, the question of effecting further decentralization in the Revenue Department and thereby reducing the congestion of work in Revenue Offices was taken up and in December of the same year the grant of additional powers to Amildars, Sub-Divisional Assistant Commissioners and Deputy Commissioners was sanctioned by Government.

Decentraliza-
tion in and
organization
of the
Revenue
Department.

In April 1917, a collection of rules framed under the Village Offices Regulation (IV of 1908), the issue of which had long been under consideration, was published, thereby consolidating and amending the complicated rules relating to an important class of revenue officers.

In January and February 1918, revised rules for recruitment to and for training for Amildari service respectively came into force; and this was followed by the sanctioning of a scheme for training of revenue officers in agriculture.

In July 1918, the Taluk Revenue Establishments were revised, the system of incremental pay in subordinate grades being abolished and the minimum pay of a taluk gumasta being fixed at Rs. 20. The scales of pay of Shekdars, Taluk Sheristedars and Amildars in the several grades were simultaneously revised and provision was subsequently made for the reopening of the school for the training of Shekdars, which had been previously abolished.

In October and November 1918, the Government introduced a scheme for gradually relieving Deputy Commissioners of the direct charge of taluks, for a corresponding increase of sub-divisions in each district and for giving them Personal Assistants wherever necessary. Owing to financial reasons, the posts of Personal Assistants have, however, since been abolished. In November 1918, further effect was given to the decentralization scheme by the grant of additional powers to the Revenue Commissioner and the Deputy Commissioners.

Other
reforms.

Among these may be mentioned the introduction of the disposal number system of correspondence in the offices of the Revenue Commissioner, the Deputy Commissioners and the Sub-Divisional Assistant Commissioners; the publication of the Village, Taluk, Sub-

Division Office and District Office Manuals; and the sanctioning of other minor reforms; all aiming at the systematic and expeditious despatch of work in revenue offices.

(a) *Constitution of New Sub-Divisions.*—In order to relieve the Deputy Commissioners of the direct charge of taluks and to set free their whole time for the general supervision of the district administration, three new Sub-Divisions were constituted in the districts of Hassan, Kolar and Kadur. The scale of pay of the taluk establishment was raised.

Administra-
tion of Sir
Kantarraj Urs,
1919-1921.

(b) *Remission and Assessment.*—A decision was arrived at on the important question of the remission of assessment on lands under tanks which do not receive a sufficient supply of water in any year or series of years. Rules were framed for granting concessions and remissions in all deserving cases.

(c) *Enhancement of the remuneration of Shanbhogs.*—The question of enhancing the remuneration of Shanbhogs was considered to assess the potgi on the income of the village instead of on the aggregate income of the *firca* and also to increase the stationary allowance by 50 per cent.

(a) *Prominent Reforms effected.*—Special attention has been paid during the period for improving the revenue administration, besides bringing into force several schemes which were administered during the previous administrations but which were not actually in operation for some reason or other; many new measures were introduced after thorough investigation into the working of the Department. The more prominent of these measures are enumerated below:—

Administra-
tion of Sir
A. R. Banerji,
from 1921 to
1926.

(1) With a view to afford greater relief to raiyats, revised rules were issued to regulate the grant of suspension and remission of wet assessment in individual cases.

(2) In order to bring more land under cultivation, a special officer was appointed to assist the Revenue Commissioner and the Deputy Commissioners in disposing of the large extent of unoccupied lands including those made available by the relinquishment of Amrut Mahāl kāvals and date groves.

(3) The minor tank restoration scheme was reviewed in Government Order dated 8th September 1922 and a revised scheme was introduced under which all tank works are to be entrusted to the Department of Public Works.

(4) A scheme for the direct recruitment to the Amildari service was sanctioned during 1922-23 and in accordance with that scheme eight Revenue Probationers were appointed of whom six were from among candidates belonging to backward communities. The list of men eligible for the Amildari service was revised by including the names of such members of backward communities serving in Departments other than the Revenue as have passed all the prescribed tests.

The levy of the supari cess was abolished with effect from the year 1923-24.

(b) *Improvement of Civil Service Salaries.*—During the year 1923-24 a slight improvement of the pay of the junior members of the Civil Service was effected by giving Assistant Commissioners an annual increment of Rs. 25 instead of the increment of Rs. 50 triennially.

(c) *Improvement of the District Administration.*—With a view to improve District Administration, defects in regard to which were prominently brought to notice in the course of the Dewan's tours of inspection, a detailed scheme for the simplification as well as for the effective audit of work in the districts was issued for the trial of a modified system of routine in one District to begin with.

(d) *Improvement of Under-ground Irrigation Source.*—For developing under-ground irrigation sources, a special staff for scientific well-boring was sanctioned to help the raiyats in sinking wells on a large scale in the dry Districts.

(e) *Reorganization of Amildari Service.*—The Amildari service was reorganized, fixing a time scale of pay for Amildars and Deputy Amildars and granting a fixed Travelling Allowance to them.

(f) *Reorganization of the Mysore Civil Service.*—The Civil Service Rules were revised in 1924, the main features of the revision being that the Civil Service will according to the revised rules be limited to officers recruited by competition and by special selection by His Highness the Mahārāja (including officers nominated by promotion from the lower ranks). The prospects of officers in the subordinate ranks have been improved by the creation of a non-civil service cadre in the several Departments, *viz.*, Revenue, Accounts, Police, etc. At the same time the Civil Service cadre has been reduced to 45, while 31 posts of corresponding rank and emoluments in the Revenue, Accounts, Police, Excise, Survey and Income-tax Departments, in the General and Revenue Secretariat and in the Department of Co-operation are reserved to officers promoted from the lower ranks of the respective Departments, including in some cases those recruited directly for those Departments. The bulk of the appointments in the Revenue Department and in the Secretariat will, under the reorganization sanctioned, be manned by Civil Service men, while in all other allied Departments a large proportion of appointments will be held by non-Civil Service men. The number of Senior Assistant Commissionerships open to the members of the Civil Service has been reduced from eleven to nine and two posts of Senior Revenue Sub-Division Officer and Senior Superintendent of Police have been created for the advancement of Non-Civil Service Officers in those Departments. Finally, the higher appointments in the Revenue, Police and Excise Departments and in the Secretariat, such as those of Revenue Commissioner, Inspector-General of Police,

Excise Commissioner, Secretaries to Government in the General Department and Deputy Commissioners have been definitely included in the cadre of Civil Service, while the higher appointments open to officers not belonging to the Civil Service have been clearly indicated.

Land
Revenue
Administra-
tion of the
present day.

At the head-quarters of the State, the revenue business of Government is conducted through the Revenue Secretariat, the Revenue Commissioner being the chief controlling revenue authority subject to Government. The powers and duties of the Revenue Commissioner, the Deputy Commissioner, the Sub-Division Officer and the Amildar are described in Chapter II of the Land Revenue Code, the rules framed thereunder and the standing orders in Chapter I of the Revenue Manual. Every Taluk is sub-divided into a number of hoblis (three or four on the average), each being placed under a Shekdar whose powers and duties are set forth in the Taluk Manual. The main functions of these revenue officers relate to the collection of land revenue, the disposal of applications for unoccupied land, the disbursement of land improvement and other loans, the inspection of village and other accounts, the maintenance and restoration of irrigation works, the working of special schemes like the Village Forest Scheme and the promotion of the welfare of the rural population in all possible ways. Special Manuals have been published systematizing and describing the work of the Deputy Commissioner, the Sub-Division Officer, the Amildar, the Shekdar and the Village Officers in the revenue and other branches.

Review of the
growth of
Land
Revenue from
1881 to 1923.

The land revenue which was 70 lakhs during 1881-82 rose to 115 lakhs during 1923-24, the occupied area increasing similarly from 4,544,000 acres in 1881-82 to 7,949,876 acres in 1923-24. This growth forms the

subject-matter of the second of the Statistical statements. The steady increase in the land revenue is due partly to the gradual expansion of the area under occupation and partly to the increase in the extent brought under wet cultivation in consequence of the construction of numerous irrigation works. Where in any particular year there was no increase of land revenue corresponding to the increase in occupied area, the causes must be sought for mainly in the unfavourableness of the season.

The annual expenditure on Land Revenue Administration (including Revenue Survey and Inam Settlement) has risen from Rs. 26,62,362 in 1923-24. The increases are mainly due to the revision of the Civil Administrative Divisions in 1886, and to the revision of the Land Revenue Establishments in 1897, 1913 and 1918.

Expenditure
on Land
Revenue
Administration
from 1881
to 1923.

STATEMENT I.

STATEMENT SHOWING THE COLLECTIONS UNDER LAND REVENUE FROM 1831 TO 1881.

Year	Land Revenue	Year	Land Revenue	Year	Land Revenue
	Rs.		Rs.		Rs.
1831-32 ...	32,03,749	1849-50 ...	52,98,881	1866-67 ...	66,56,799
1832-33 ...	40,94,927	1850-51 ...	53,36,615	1867-68 ...	80,92,251
1833-34 ...	44,06,957	1851-52 ...	54,27,273	1868-69 ...	77,53,671
1834-35 ...	49,42,862	1852-53 ...	53,20,394	1869-70 ...	61,31,402
1835-36 ...	54,64,525	1853-54 ...	55,16,102	1870-71 ...	60,07,316
1836-37 ...	48,09,282	1854-55 ...	53,31,740	1871-72 ...	73,25,280
1837-38 ...	48,33,450	1855-56 ...	47,68,696	1872-73 ...	73,50,285
1838-39 ...	50,30,877	1856-57 ...	61,20,186	1873-74 ...	72,12,772
1840-41 ...	50,98,507	1857-58 ...	59,11,159	1874-75 ...	82,94,178
1841-42 ...	51,79,891	1858-59 ...	60,74,198	1875-76 ...	74,08,203
1842-43 ...	51,35,994	1859-60 ...	66,31,772	1876-77 ...	50,95,280
1843-44 ...	48,44,581	1860-61 ...	64,12,116	1877-78 ...	43,06,673
1844-45 ...	48,73,473	1861-62 ...	65,33,471	1878-79 ...	90,83,509
1845-46 ...	47,41,108	1862-63 ...	67,22,384	1879-80 ...	76,73,792
1846-47 ...	50,74,994	1863-64 ...	71,14,715	1880-81 ...	72,13,346
1847-48 ...	53,40,674	1864-65 ...	73,19,026		
1848-49 ...	54,18,634	1865-66 ...	77,25,767		

STATEMENT II.

STATEMENT SHOWING THE GROWTH OF OCCUPIED AREA
AND LAND REVENUE (REALIZED) FROM 1881-82 TO
1923-24.

Year	Area under occupancy (in acres)	Land Revenue realised in rupees)	Year	Area under occupancy (in acres)	Land Revenue realised (in rupees)
1881-82 ...	4,514,000	70,20,842	1903-04 ...	7,316,186	97,99,989
1882-83 ...	4,899,840	70,21,777	1904-05 ...	7,263,568	96,63,976
1883-84 ...	4,954,240	73,34,476	1905-06 ...	7,257,493	91,02,029
1884-85 ...	5,130,250	66,88,886	1906-07 ...	7,271,169	1,00,31,178
1885-86 ...	5,765,760	76,41,241	1907-08 ...	7,332,939	1,03,80,179
1886-87 ...	5,576,320	87,09,602	1908-09 ...	7,379,703	89,15,679
1887-88 ...	5,660,160	85,13,878	1909-10 ...	7,444,176	1,05,02,812
1888-89 ...	5,880,960	83,96,337	1910-11 ...	7,500,638	1,06,75,688
1889-90 ...	5,940,480	89,21,826	1911-12 ...	7,545,521	1,06,48,215
1890-91 ...	6,042,880	87,12,705	1912-13 ...	7,591,650	1,05,00,292
1891-92 ...	6,272,248	80,61,233	1913-14 ...	7,687,490	1,05,36,996
1892-93 ...	6,364,932	94,52,210	1914-15 ...	7,671,449	1,01,63,969
1893-94 ...	6,650,815	94,40,167	1915-16 ...	7,779,668	1,06,26,610
1894-95 ...	6,790,799	95,57,323	1916-17 ...	7,843,601	1,10,09,352
1895-96 ...	6,877,277	97,45,807	1917-18 ...	7,802,121	1,08,86,769
1896-97 ...	6,911,712	93,30,861	1918-19 ...	7,839,810	1,00,72,101
1897-98 ...	6,892,826	97,85,924	1919-20 ...	7,861,120	1,18,73,104
1898-99 ...	6,953,987	95,34,042	1920-21 ...	7,858,729	1,01,69,002
1899-00 ...	6,972,071	95,03,434	1921-22 ...	7,844,022	1,17,14,770
1900-01 ...	7,048,491	98,31,374	1922-23 ...	8,393,456	1,19,79,774
1901-02 ...	7,179,548	97,70,946	1923-24 ...	7,949,876	1,14,65,177
1902-03 ...	7,239,774	1,00,29,861			

(ii) REVENUE SURVEY AND SETTLEMENT.

Preliminary
Survey,
1799-1862.

No general revenue survey of the lands in Mysore appears to have been made prior to 1799; but immediately afterwards a general topographical survey was made by Colonel Mackenzie, subsequently Surveyor-General of India. While Purnaiya was Dewan, a general *Pymaish* (or revenue survey) was made but it was necessarily very imperfect at the time and after the lapse of fifty years the records had become extremely defective. Though nothing was subsequently done in the way of any general measure, a good deal was effected by measurements of particular lands as a check on attempts to falsify the records. Sir Mark Cubbon was, however, fully alive to

the value of a thoroughly scientific Revenue Survey and assessment and expressed his intention, if the financial state of the country continued to prosper, to propose its being carried out.

The numerous varieties of land tenure which have prevailed in Mysore since the commencement of the nineteenth century afford an interesting study and like the geological strata which furnish evidence to the geologist of the several epochs in the history of the earth's surface, throw light on the history of revenue administration in Mysore. By far the most interesting description of the land tenures which existed prior to the introduction of the Survey and Inam Settlement is the one given in pages 23 to 32 of the General Administration Report of 1872-73 and reproduced in pages 686-92 of Volume I of the 2nd edition of this *Gazetteer*. But this description possesses at present mostly an antiquarian interest.

Land Tenures
prior to 1863.

The two main tenures prevailing at present are the *Kandayam* or *Raiyatwari* tenure and the *Inam* tenure and each of these descriptions of land has been settled by two separate Departments constituted respectively for the "Survey and Settlement" and the "Inam Settlement."

All cultivated land is usually classed either as dry (*Kushki*), wet (*Tari*) or garden (*Bagayet*). The first class is cultivated with dry grains like ragi which are ordinarily dependent on the rainfall; the second with paddy, sugar-cane or such other staple productions as require artificial irrigation; and the third with cocoa-nut and areca-nut trees and other garden produce. The two last require artificial irrigation from tanks, channels or wells except in some of the *malnād* taluks where the rainfall is exceptionally copious.

Introduction
of Survey and
Settlement in
1863-1864.
(a) The
Ancient
system of
Land
Measurement.

Before the introduction of the English land measures, the land measures in Mysore corresponded with the measures of capacity and depended on the area of land which can be sown with a given quantity of seed. This area varied greatly on dry and on wet land. On dry land it was estimated that one *Khandi* or *Khandaga* of seed would suffice to sow 64,000 square yards and accordingly this area (13 acres, 8 guntas and 112 square yards) represents a *Khandi* of dry land whereas on wet or garden land, a *Khandi* of seed would only sow 10,000 square yards which area (2 acres, 2 guntas and 78 square yards) denotes a *Khandi* of wet land. This mode of measurement gave room for laxity of practice and fraud and to this must in part be ascribed the introduction of a scientific Survey and Settlement.

(b) Organiza-
tion of the
Survey and
Settlement
Department
in 1863-1864.

In 1862, the attention of the Commissioner (Mr. Bowring) was drawn to evils of a serious nature resulting from want of a regular measurement of land and adjustment of the land revenue. Even in the neighbourhood of Bangalore, it was ascertained that there were so many as 596 different rates of assessment on dry land alone and that on the better classes of land the rates were so abnormally high as clearly to indicate the incorrectness of the land measurement. After some correspondence between the Commissioner and the Government of India, it was decided by the latter to introduce a regular system of Survey and Settlement, the system fixed upon being that in force in Bombay which is cheaper and more expeditious than the Madras system, but on the other hand, involves a less accurate Survey. The new Department commenced its work in 1863-64 under the supervision of a Survey and Settlement Commissioner. Its objects may be defined as the regulation of the customary land-tax so as to secure an adequate revenue to Government; the progressive development of the agricultural resources

of the country; and the preservation of all proprietary and other rights connected with the soil.

The principle and processes of the Bombay system of Survey and Settlement (original) are discussed in detail in the Manuals cited in the bibliographical note; but a very brief description of the elementary principles may not prove uninteresting in this *Gazetteer*.

Principles of
Survey and
Settlement
(Original).

The several operations incidental to the introduction of the Survey and Settlement into a taluk are—

- (a) The measurement and demarcation of fields,
- (b) The classification of soils,
- (c) The fixing of the rates of assessment.

(a) Let us take measurement first. The unit both of survey and assessment is the field which is not necessarily identical with the area of an actual holding. Technically it is a "Survey number" or a "recognized share of a survey number" formed for convenience of measurement with reference to climate, soil and kind of cultivation, the minimum area being that which can be cultivated with a pair of bullocks. Larger holdings are divided; and smaller holdings are clubbed together. Each "survey number" is demarcated by permanent boundaries such as stones or earthen mounds the maintenance of which is strictly enforced and a village map is prepared on the scale of eight inches to the mile.

(b) We may now proceed to classification. The classification of fields according to soil is conducted in accordance with definite principles, soils being first divided into three orders, differing in mechanical composition and colour. Each order is then placed under one of nine classes according to its depth from surface, after account has been also taken of eight kinds of faults, the presence of any one of which lowers it by one or two classes according to the degree of the fault. To each class a

relative value is affixed expressed in fractions of sixteenths ranging from 1 to 2/16. Corresponding with the "faults," whereby a valuation is decreased by degrees, the later rules have prescribed various "advantages," chiefly the advantages of the distinctly favourable position whereby the relative valuation is carried even beyond sixteen annas. This process is primarily applicable to dry crop land, the rules being modified in the case of wet and garden lands so as to provide among others for the valuation of water-supply.

(c) We finally come to the third and last process, the fixing of assessment on each field. When the measurement and the classification are over, the Settlement Officer has before him a complete statement of the correct measurement of fields and of the relative valuation of each field expressed in annas. Before finally fixing the assessment, it has been usual to subdivide the tract under settlement into a number of groups of villages homogeneous as to physical characteristics and economic advantages such as climate, rainfall, general fertility of soil, communications, markets and the like. The total amount of assessment to be levied from the tract is then fixed with reference to certain general considerations based on the revenue history of the tract for the past 30 or more years. The statistics bearing on the revenue history are tabulated in figured statements and diagrams which show in adjacent columns for each year of the series the amount and incidence of the assessment, the collections including remissions and arrears, the ease or difficulty with which the revenue was realised, the rainfall and nature of the season, the increase or decrease of the cultivated area, the harvest prices and how these particulars are influenced by each other.

The effect of any public improvements such as roads, railways, canals, markets, etc., on the tract or on parts of it is estimated. The prices for which land is sold or

the rents for which it is let are ascertained ; and the tract is compared as regards the above particulars with other tracts similar to it in soil, climate and situation. Upon a consideration of all these data, the total assessment is fixed. This amount is then apportioned pretty much in the same manner on the different villages. But in practice the Settlement Officer adopts the reverse and more convenient process of fixing maximum rates for the different descriptions of land (*i. e.*, dry, wet and garden) in the several groups which when applied to the classification values of individual fields will produce the total amount of assessment fixed for the tract. The "Akaband" is then prepared showing the assessment of each survey number. The original settlement reports of taluks and especially the report in the case of Manjarābād Taluk—which contains a map of the taluk for explaining the grouping of the villages for purposes of assessment—will afford numerous examples illustrative of the application of the above principles and processes.

The revenue officers have from time to time made experiments as to outturn of crops and the Settlement Officers make use of them in checking the rates of assessment. Thus the Committee on revenue matters which assembled at Bangalore in March 1868 concluded, after examining the survey papers, that the rates both in respect to irrigated and unirrigated land appeared to fall at $1/6$ (one-sixth) of the gross produce on an average.

Relation of
the assess-
ment to gross
produce.

In the Address of the Dewan to the Representative Assembly of 1903, the net value of the produce of an acre of dry cultivation has been estimated at Rs. 12, wet at Rs. 50 and garden at Rs. 80.

The Survey commenced in 1863 in the north in Chitaldrug District and worked west-wards and south-wards.

Progress of
the Survey
and Settle-
ment till 1899

Beginning with Harihar Taluk which came under settlement in March 1865, the Survey Department continued to make steady progress and completed the Survey and Settlement (original) of all the taluks in 1899, measurement and classification having been completed in 1890 and 1896 respectively and Nanjangud taluk being the last to be settled in May 1899. The reader who desires information regarding the dates of introduction of Survey Settlement into each taluk is referred to Appendix I to Chapter VIII of the *Revenue Manual*. The two *Jagirs* in the State, viz., Sringeri and Yelandur, were settled in 1901 and 1896, respectively. With the completion of Settlement, the *Batayi* system of tenure entirely vanished.

It is interesting to notice that there was no grouping of villages in the case of Harihar Taluk, the maximum dry and garden rates being Rs. 2 and 4 respectively for the whole taluk. In regard to Nanjangud Taluk, the villages were divided into four groups, the maximum garden rate being Rs. 10 for all groups, the maximum dry rates varying from Rs. 1-14-0 to Rs. 1-6-0 per acre and the maximum wet rates ranging from Rs. 9 to Rs. 6 per acre. If the reader will glance at a modern map of Mysore, he can hardly fail to notice the odd coincidence that Harihar and Nanjangud—the chief towns of the two taluks which marked the initial and the concluding stages of the Survey and Settlement (original)—form at present the extreme terminal stations on one of the main lines of railway passing through the State.

Laws, rules and orders regulating the administration of Survey and Settlement.

(a) In February 1868, Col. Strachey, Inspector-General of Irrigation Works, visited Bangalore and recorded a note on certain points calling for attention in the Revenue Survey with reference to the requirements of irrigation works, present and prospective. This note was considered by two Committees (one revenue and

the other irrigation), the recommendations of the Irrigation Committee being approved by the Secretary of State in his Despatch No. 77, dated 30th September 1870. The substance of the Committee's recommendations was that a large proportion of the Irrigation Works in Mysore should be transferred for purposes of repair from the Public Works Department to the Revenue authorities who would have to be provided with a petty establishment to carry them out; and that after these repairs should have been completed, the maintenance of the works in proper order should rest with the cultivators subject to a general supervision on the part of the revenue officers.

(b) By a notification dated 20th August 1868, the Survey and Settlement Commissioner promulgated rules for the repair and maintenance of boundary marks. This was soon after followed by a Government Notification No. 83, dated 30th April 1869, sanctioning the introduction into Mysore of Bombay Acts I of 1865 and IV of 1868 with certain modifications.

The revised Survey and Settlement Rules and the revised Survey Guarantee were published respectively by Government Notification No. 39, dated 26th May 1869, and No. 198, dated 9th February 1870. These in the main regulated the administration of Survey Settlements until 1st April 1889 when they were replaced by Chapters VIII to X of the *Mysore Land Revenue Code* and the Rules and standing orders framed thereunder. The period of settlement under the Bombay Acts has usually been fixed at 30 (thirty) years, the assessment being liable to revision at the end of this period.

Early in the nineteenth century, coffee was grown to a small extent, the collections of the customary *vāram* or half-share of the produce due to Government being framed out. After the transfer of the administration to

Settlement of coffee lands.

(a) Brief history of Coffee Cultivation in Mysore.

the British Government, a *halat* or excise tax of one rupee per maund (or 4 rupees per cwt.) was substituted for the sharing system in 1838-39. At the then price of coffee, *viz.*, Rs. 4 per maund, this was equivalent to a tax of 25 per cent on the gross produce. The *halat* was reduced in 1834-44 to 8 annas per maund and in 1849-50, in consequence of a heavy fall in the price of coffee, the duty was again reduced to 4 annas per maund. The price of coffee having risen to Rs. 9 per maund in 1878, the then incidence of the tax was slightly less than 3 per cent of the gross produce.

(b) Substitution of an acreage assessment for *halat*.

The collection of *halat* duty which attained a maximum of more than a lakh of rupees in 1863-64 began to fall off since 1869-70, the collections in 1880-81 being about one-third of a lakh of rupees. There were good reasons for suspecting that the duty was very largely evaded; and the desirability of replacing this unsatisfactory system by an acreage rate was under consideration since 1862. In May 1876, the Chief Commissioner (Mr. Dalyell) reviewed the question thoroughly and invited the views of the Planters' Association. After these opinions were received, the Chief Commissioner (Sir J. Gordon) recorded two Minutes, one in October 1878 and the other in July 1879 discussing the principles of settlement and left the question to be disposed of after the Rendition. In August 1881, the Government of His Highness the Mahārāja took up the matter and announced in outline the terms on which coffee lands in Mysore would be settled, the excise duty on coffee (*halat*) being at the same time abolished. This was followed by the issue in March 1885 of a notification containing in detail the terms of settlement which had by that time been nearly completed. The main provisions of the settlement are given below:—

(1) Lands coming under permanent settlement will be

assessed at Rs. 1-8-0 per acre, the lands coming under a temporary settlement of 30 years being assessed at Re. 1 per acre.

(2) No additional land revenue is leviable by reason of any produce whatsoever raised on the lands coming under the settlement.

(3) Toddy being a Government monopoly, the holders of coffee lands will be permitted to draw toddy from bagani or other trees only for domestic purposes such as the making of bread, etc.

(4) The right to seven descriptions of reserved trees in coffee lands will vest in Government subject to certain provisions.

(5) The right to nine descriptions of reserved trees in lands held on gross assessment will vest in Government subject to certain conditions.

(6) The right in or to precious stones, gold and other minerals will be reserved to Government subject to certain provisions.

(7) No royalty will be leviable on certain ordinary minerals found in the lands when applied to the *bonafide* private use of the holder.

The grant of unoccupied lands for coffee cultivation is now regulated by rules framed under Section 112 of the Land Revenue Code. (Appendix E of the Land Revenue Rules of 1890).

To prevent, as far as possible, injurious effects on the head waters of springs and streams resulting from cardamom cultivation, waste lands within a specified zone in the heart of the *malnād* are not ordinarily granted for such cultivation.

The following are the special tenures under which land is held in the State :—

† (a) *Kans*.—These are large tracts of forests for which a light assessment called the *Kan Shist* is paid by their occupants. The *Kans* properly so called are evergreen jungles with springs and are preserved for the sake of

Lands held
under other
Special
Tenures.

the wild pepper-vines, bagani palms, and certain gum trees that grow in them. The privileges of the occupants of *Kans* are defined by certain notifications of Government issued in 1885 and 1896, the main items being the collection of jungle produce and the drawing of toddy for domestic purposes; unoccupied *Kans* are excluded from regular *hulbanni* sales.

(b) *Soppinbettas*.—These are lands attached to *malnāḍ wargs* for furnishing the leaves (or *soppu*) required for the gardens as manure.

(c) *Kumri cultivation*.—This is mostly peculiar to the hill tribes. The mode of cultivation has been described in the Chapter on *Agriculture* (Volume III—*Economic*).

(d) *Other tenures*.—Land Revenue Rule 44 and Appendices F, G, H and I of the Land Revenue Rules of 1890 describe certain tenures created by the grant of lands for special purposes.

Principles of
Revision
Settlements.

By Section 115 of the Land Revenue Code, the principles on which original settlements will be revised are laid down in broad outline, the main provisions being that the revised assessment will be fixed with reference to general considerations of the value of land, whether as to soil or situation, prices of produce or facilities of communication and that improvements made from private capital and resources shall not be taxed.

Revision settlements in respect of Davangere and other taluks having fallen due in 1895-96, the Government, by orders passed in 1896 and 1903, directed that the original classification of dry lands should in no case be altered and that only the water classification of the wet and garden lands need be revised.

To give effect to the declaration in the Land Revenue Code that improvements made from private capital will not be taxed, the Government, in January 1902, made certain rules regulating the revision of assessment on

gardens irrigated by wells, the main feature of the scheme being that gardens brought under well-irrigation since the last settlement should be assessed, at simple dry-crop rate if the wells are self-dependent, and within double the highest dry rates if the wells are sunk along the banks of streams or within a tank series directly or indirectly dependent on Government irrigation works. (G.O. No. R. 3704-13—L.S. 50-15-5, dated 5th September 1918). Rules were subsequently passed in regard to the maximum limits of increase of revenue at revision settlements and other miscellaneous matters coming up for consideration at such settlements. These rules will be found in the *Revenue Manual* (Chapter VIII, Section II).

In this connection it is worthy of note that the *halat* tax on Supari was abolished in 1907, though substantial relief had previously in 1896 been given to garden owners in the four taluks of Sorab, Sagar, Nagar and Koppa. In 1906, Government laid down further that the garden assessment in the *malnād* should be so dealt with at the time of revision that in no taluk should the total revised assessment exceed the collections actually made under the Remission Scheme of 1896.

The first taluk that became ripe for a revision in 1895 was Davangere; but it was actually revised nine years after due time as the decision of Government in regard to revision of settlements was not declared in time and as revision survey and settlement was begun in 1901. Delay has thus become a necessary concomitant of all revision settlements and efforts are being made to recover lost ground as far as possible. In all, 62 taluks were revised by the year 1924-25, five of which are *malnād* taluks.

Progress of
Revision
Settlements.

A statement showing the progress of revision settlements will be found in the Appendices to Chapter VIII

of the *Revenue Manual*. The effects of revision settlements have been that the assessment on gardens has been reduced and that there has been a moderate increase of assessment on dry and wet lands.

Potgi Settlement.

The Survey and Settlement Department is entrusted with the important and arduous duty of revising and settling the village service emoluments. It is of great importance owing to the necessity of providing sufficient remuneration for the *patels* in connection with the organization of the Village Police. Under the Survey Settlement, the *aya* payments, *i.e.*, the fees in grain paid direct to the *patels* and *shambhogs* by the raiyats have been abolished, they being included in the land assessment; and a scale of remuneration has been fixed in the shape of money payments (called *potgi*) in all the surveyed taluks. The Potgi Rules now form part of the Rules framed under the Village Offices Regulation.

The organization of the Survey and Settlement Department.

The Department was in the beginning controlled by a Commissioner under whom were a Superintendent, a Deputy Superintendent and at a time 14 Assistant Superintendents; but in 1876 most of the Assistants were transferred for famine duty and the number was subsequently reduced.

In the year 1881, the appointment of Survey and Settlement Commissioner was abolished and survey operations since then have been controlled by Superintendents of Revenue Survey who have also had charge of Inam Settlements. In 1890 when the entire work of measurement was completed, the Department was further reduced; in 1903, however, Col. J. P. Grant who was at the head of the Department was styled Survey and Settlement Commissioner as a mark of personal distinction in consideration of his long and valuable service to the State.

All the European officers were gradually retired or transferred, their places being taken by Indian Officers on a reduced scale of remuneration, selected from among Amildars and Assistant Commissioners of suitable attainments.

Since the retirement of Col. Grant in the year 1807, the Department has been entirely administered by Indian Officers. With the completion of survey in the Southern Mahratta Country of the Bombay Presidency, almost the only source from which men were being drawn for the Mysore Revenue Survey had ceased to exist, and it being necessary to provide for the reconstitution of field establishments during survey, care was taken not to lose the services of trained and competent fieldmen who were kept employed as District Surveyors and Taluk Measurers.

The constitution of the Revenue Survey Department differed markedly from the other Departments in that the strength of the different establishments and the scale of pay of the members thereof were variable at the discretion of the Survey Superintendent. The cost of the subordinate ministerial and field establishments was met from an annual lump-sum provision.

In June 1919, the Government sanctioned the reorganization of the Department and an expenditure of Rs. 1,45,000 as against the total normal expenditure of Rs. 80,516 on an average during the past three years. In the year 1922-23, considerable retrenchment was effected in the Department involving a reduction of officers and establishment. The superior staff at present consists of one Superintendent with the status of the Deputy Commissioner, and—

- 1 Deputy Superintendent,
- 6 Assistant Superintendents, and
- 1 Sub-Assistant Superintendent.

APPENDIX I.

ANCIENT SYSTEMS OF GRAIN AND LAND MEASURE.

The following are the established standards:—

Grain Measure.

4 Chattaks	=	1 Pavu.
2 Pavus	=	1 Payili or Padi.
2 Padi or Payili	=	1 Seer.
2 Seers	=	1 Balla.
4 Ballas	=	1 Kolaga or Kudu.
20 Kolagas or Kudas	=	1 Khandaga or Khandi.

Land Measure.

Quantity of seed sown	Square yards	Equivalent area of land		
		*Acres	Guntas	Sq. Yds.
Dry land—				
1 Payili or Padi ...	200	...	1	79
2 Payili — 1 Seer ...	400	...	3	87
2 Seers — 1 Balla ...	800	...	6	74
4 Ballas — 1 Kudu ...	3,200	...	26	54
20 Kudus — 1 Khandaga or Khandi.	64,000	...	8	112
Wet and Garden land—				
1 Payili or Padi ...	31½	31½
2 Payili — 1 Seer ...	62½	62½
2 Seers — 1 Balla ...	125	...	1	4
4 Ballas — 1 Kudu ...	500	...	4	16
20 Kudus — 1 Khandaga or Khandi.	10,000	2	2	78

* An acre consists of 40 *guntas*, each *gunta* being 121 square yards.

APPENDIX II.

STATEMENT REGARDING COFFEE HALAT.

Year	Halat	Year	Halat	Year	Halat
	Rs.		Rs.		Rs.
1831-32 ...	4,270	1848-49 ...	33,849	1865-66 ...	1,02,781
1832-33 ...	7,472	1849-50 ...	27,509	1866-67 ...	43,199
1833-34 ...	7,472	1850-51 ...	32,300	1867-68 ...	1,06,357
1834-35 ...	7,476	1851-52 ...	25,952	1868-69 ...	1,04,407
1835-36 ...	7,476	1852-53 ...	35,952	1869-70 ...	66,978
1836-37 ...	7,476	1853-54 ...	31,327	1870-71 ...	69,775
1837-38 ...	6,262	1854-55 ...	50,204	1871-72 ...	74,948
1838-39 ...	21,011	1855-56 ...	32,229	1872-73 ...	79,161
1839-40 ...	14,811		42,711	1873-74 ...	54,978
1840-41 ...	21,943	1856-57 ...	34,065	1874-75 ...	66,335
1841-42 ...	15,905	1857-58 ...	43,231	1875-76 ...	74,572
1842-43 ...	21,720	1858-59 ...	44,456	1876-77 ...	62,816
1843-44 ...	19,779	1859-60 ...	76,469	1877-78 ...	38,108
1844-45 ...	23,266	1860-61 ...	79,091	1878-79 ...	33,453
1845-46 ...	23,006	1861-62 ...	68,113	1879-80 ...	36,712
1846-47 ...	27,320	1862-63 ...	93,393	1880-81 ...	33,611
1847-48 ...	30,059	1863-64 ...	1,09,463		
		1864-65 ...	92,791		

(iii) INAM SETTLEMENT.

The Inams in the State may all be referred to one of three epochs and the statement given in the Statistical portion (see Appendices) shows the value of the land inams which had sprung up during each of these periods. After the restoration of the Hindu dynasty in 1799, the British Commissioners advised Dewan Purnaiya that no alienation of land should be made without the Resident's approbation. This advice was fairly acted on by the Dewan during his memorable administration, the alienations between 1799 and 1811 being in reality unfrequent and the inams which are entered as having been created during Purnaiya's administration being (with the exception of his own *jagir* conferred by the Government of India) chiefly those which had been sequestered during the Muhammadan usurpation and which on the re-establishment of Hindu rule it was thought proper to restore. From 1810 to 1831,

Statement
and History
of Inams.

Mahārāja Krishnarāja Wodayar III alienated lands, besides confirming others on kayamgutta, or permanent tenure, while the system of administration in vogue then afforded his subordinate officers opportunities for alienating land without proper authority. The third epoch dates from the commencement of the British Administration in 1831. The grants made during this period are comparatively of small value and are held on condition of service consisting in the upkeep of *chatrams*, maintenance of groves, tanks and avenue trees. In addition to the above, the statement shows a considerable number of *Sthal* inams or as they are sometimes termed, *Chor* inams. Under this head are comprised all such inams as although enjoyed for some time have not been granted by competent authority.

Genesis of
the Inam
Commission,
(1863-68).
(a) The
preliminary
rules of 1863.

A searching investigation into the inam tenures of the State had long been contemplated by the British Government; but it was not until 1863 when the Revenue Survey was introduced into Mysore that the necessity of the investigation became urgent. Accordingly in January 1863, skeleton Inam rules were submitted to the Government of India and their instructions on the main question were solicited. The general principles then laid down served as a sufficient guide in Revenue Survey matters, where the interests of the inamdars were concerned, until 1866 when the Inam Commission was organized.

(b) The Inam
tenures.

There were at that time various tenures of inams in Mysore as in other parts of India; in some instances of inam grants there were *sannads* (i.e., documents conveying emoluments, titles, etc., under the seal of the ruling authority), in others there were none; in some a hereditary title without restriction as to the heirs and powers of alienating the land were distinctly added in the *sannads*, while in others no mention was made of such

privileges. Again, excess holdings were the rule and there were as noted above a large number of cases in which land had been surreptitiously occupied for a long period. The dates of the *sannads* which came within the scope of the Inam Commission ranged from the 15th to the 19th century, the grants having been made by the Aneundi Rajas, the Keladi, Ikkēri and Nagar chiefs, Hyder Ali, Tipu Sultān, Dewan Pūrnaiya and Mahārāja Krishnarāja Wodayar III.

In drawing up the rules for the confirmation of Inams, it was decided, after much discussion, to adopt the basic principles of the Inam Settlement in the Madras Presidency which having been started in 1858 was nearing completion at the time. In one important respect, however, these principles were departed from. The Inam Commissioner was constituted the final judicial authority and his decision was not, as in Madras, made liable to be revised by a Civil Court. But as described below, this provision was altered in 1872-73 and the Madras system with one or two exceptions prevailed in its integrity. The Inam Rules for Mysore were sanctioned by the Government of India in April 1868. These rules, based on the theory of the reversionary right of the Government, were so framed as to meet the several descriptions of inam lands existing in the State testing their validity first, by the competency of the grantor, irrespectively of the duration of the inam (whether 50 or less than 50 years old) and secondly, by the duration of the inam for 50 or more than 50 years, irrespectively of the competence or otherwise of the grantor.

(c) The Inam Rules.

The following were the fundamental principles on which the settlement was conducted :—

Main principles of the Inam Settlement.

(a) When *sannads* had been granted by Mahārāja Krishnarāja Wodayar III or by his predecessors, and when

they conveyed full powers of alienation and were hereditary, the inams were treated as hereditary and alienable property ;

(b) When *sannads* emanating as above did not convey full powers of alienation, the inams might be enfranchised by payment of a quit-rent equal to one-eighth of the assessment of the tenure except in the case of inams granted for the performance of religious, charitable, village or other service, still requiring to be rendered ;

(c) When *sannads* had been granted by incompetent persons and when they were less than 50 years old, a compulsory quit-rent equal to one-half of the assessment was imposed.

But in doubtful cases and where there was probability of the inam having been enjoyed for fully 50 years, the quit-rent to be imposed was one-fourth of the assessment. It will thus be seen that quit-rent was imposed for granting an extension of rights to the Inamdar. Mysore being an Indian State, redemption of the *jōdī* or quit-rent was not permitted as in Madras.

Subsequent
history of
the Inam
Commission.

At the time of its first organization in 1866, the Inam Commission was composed of an Inam Commissioner, one Special Assistant and three Assistants. But in the beginning of the year 1872-73 the Department was re-organized. The control of its proceedings was then transferred to the Survey Commissioner while the settlement was carried on under his direction by an officer styled Superintendent of Inam Settlements, aided by three Assistants. Under this scheme, the judicial powers hitherto exercised by Inam officers were withdrawn and claims *inter partes* were referred to the ordinary Civil Courts. In other respects the rules of settlement remained the same as before except in the case of whole inam villages. Up to 1872 the determination of the value of inam villages for purposes of enfranchisement followed the Madras Inam Rules and was based on the old assessment recorded in Pūrṇaiya's *Jarī Ināmti* accounts with such additions as were deemed just on account of the

right of the State to prospective cultivation of waste lands; and the old valuation in the *Ināmti* accounts was adopted when the accounts of present rental furnished the inamdars fell short of it or could not be relied upon.

But upon a representation of the Survey and Settlement Commissioner made in 1872 that the procedure above described based on imperfect data would be injurious to the Government in not securing the full amount of quit-rent and local fund cesses, a survey of whole inam villages (with the exception of those for which title deeds had been issued prior to 12th October 1872) for ascertaining their correct valuation was sanctioned by the Chief Commissioner in February 1874 for purposes of the Inam Settlement. As the survey could not keep pace with the inam enquiry which had already outstripped the survey, a system of charging *ad interim* quit-rent upon the best data forthcoming was devised on the understanding that this settlement was to last only until the village was valued by the Survey Department.

In 1881 the Government, on the complaint of the Inamdars, directed that the survey assessment on the lands under cultivation with 25 per cent of the assessment on the arable waste on account of prospective improvements together with a reasonable pasture rent on the unarable waste would be a fair valuation to adopt. All whole inam villages in the State (2,080 in number including Kayamgutta villages) were dealt with in accordance with these orders and final title-deeds were issued.

In 1907 the head of the Survey Department was appointed *Ex-officio* Superintendent of Inam Settlements.

These were inams granted free of or on light assessment in consideration of "construction and up-keep" or very rarely "up-keep" alone of tanks. Kodagi Inams were in the first instance dealt with under Rule V A

Certain special kinds of Inams. (a) Kodagi Inams.

of the General Inam Rules; but in 1875 after much discussion, the Kodagi tenure was abolished, the liabilities of the Kodagidars ceasing. In 1876-77, the Chief Commissioner with the approval of the Government of India promulgated certain rules for the enfranchisement of these inams in Government villages, the principal rules being given below:—

(1) Inams granted for the “construction and up-keep” of tanks were enfranchised at one-fourth quit-rent if the conditions of the grants had been fairly observed and if the tanks were in use; otherwise inams of this class were enfranchised at one-half quit-rent.

(2) Inams granted for the “up-keep” of Government tanks were enfranchised at one-half quit-rent if the conditions specified in Rule 1 were satisfied; otherwise Inams of this class were confirmed to their holders on half assessment for life and on their death were brought under full assessment.

As there were complaints that the above rules had been given effect to under an erroneous interpretation of their provisions, the settlement was revised in 1888 on the principle that no Kodagi Inam should be treated as granted for “up-keep” only, except on distinct proof and that in the absence of such proof the ordinary presumption was to be that the Inam was granted for construction and up-keep. The application of this principle at revision brought under Rule 1 a large number of cases dealt with originally under Rule 2.

(b) Kayam-
gutta villages.

Kayamgutta grants proper were tenures intended to promote cultivation under the incentive of a permanent assessment based on the then existing revenue. The kayamgutta villages were granted mostly between 1810 and 1831 on *Shrāya* tenure, the *gutta* being allowed to attain its maximum in the course of three or five years. These villages were brought under the operations of the Inam Commission in August 1877.

In the *Malnad*, the original inam was not a grant of land as a rule but the assignment or remission of a certain amount of revenue due to Government on land, that land being sometimes in the occupation of the cash grantee and sometimes in the occupation of another person. In the latter case, he paid the amount of the cash grant to the person in whose favour the cash assignment was made. Special rules were passed in 1872-74 for the settlement of this class of inams.

(c) *Malnad*
Inams.

In compliance with the request of the *Guru* of the Sringeri Matt and for the important purpose of establishing fixity of title and tenure within the Jagir, Regulation No. IV of 1897 was passed on the 12th December 1897 for the settlement of inams within the Jagir of Sringeri; and by rules subsequently passed, provision was made for the conversion of paddy payments into land inams and for the enforcement of certain conditions in the case of *Agrahar* Inams (*i.e.*, the keeping up of the *Agrahara* house and the residence in it of a *Brāhman* fulfilling the objects of the original grant).

(d) Inams
within the
Jagir of
Sringeri.

The allocation of Sringeri Inams and the announcement of the Survey and Inam Settlement were effected in April 1907.

A question of almost equal importance to that of inam holdings in land was the settlement of the money grants made at various periods to numerous institutions and individuals for services or otherwise. In the year 1862-63, these allowances were brought more directly under the control of the Audit Department, their amount reaching a sum of nearly three lakhs of rupees. The greater portion of this amount is paid from the general revenues under the head "*Muzrai*" towards the support of some 1,500 charitable and religious institutions consisting of temples, *maths* and *chatrams* as well as of 10,000

Settlement of
money grants.

persons in receipt of personal grants. In the absence of a regulated system for dealing with allowances when they lapsed on the death of the grantees, some confusion and much diversity of practice naturally resulted and their settlement in accordance with clear and simple rules had become necessary. Accordingly in July 1868 the Government of India sanctioned rules defining exactly the terms on which money allowances of this description are held and continued. The following is a brief summary of the rules :—

(a) All allowances which were authoritatively disbursed and registered up to the year 1830-31 and those subsequently granted or renewed by the Mysore Government were held valid whether supported by *sannad* or not :

(b) Ready money allowances which were paid to institutions and individuals from Sayar and Abkari collections were similarly dealt with ;

(c) Grants made for the support of religious and charitable institutions were to be continued so long as these institutions were efficiently maintained ;

(d) Personal or subsistence grants, the hereditary character of which could be satisfactorily established, were continued without reduction to the holders and their successors.

When the term of the grant was not specified in the *sannad*, the allowance was gradually eliminated in two lives by a reduction of one-half at the end of each lapse subsequent to the death of the first holder under the rules. A grant expressly limited to the life of the holder lapsed to the State at his death.

The statement given in the statistical part shows the value of money grants of different descriptions borne on the registers in 1868.

A general
review of the
Inam
operations.
(a) From 1866
to 1881.

The operations of the Inam Department were brought to a close in 1881. The total number of land inams confirmed was 57,888 of which 57,726 were enfranchised and 162 unenfranchised. Besides these, there were

11,302 inams resumed for invalidity of tenure. In 4,658 cases, the land could neither be identified nor was it in enjoyment; they were therefore struck off the list. Cash grants or Muzrai payments were confirmed to the number of 1,942 amounting in value to Rupees 2,68,940; in 415 cases the payments were resumed and in 982 struck off as having been formerly resumed. The total cost of the commission up to the close of 1880-81 amounted to Rs. 9,53,581 and 89 per cent of this was added to the revenue through its operations though conducted on principles most liberal to the inamdars.

Out of 57,888 land inams confirmed up to 1881, 4,054 inams were resumed since 1881 for one reason or other, chiefly on account of relinquishment and 1,953 inams have had to be converted into cash as they could not be allocated on land in the *Malnād*. The cost of the Department from the commencement till July 1919 when it was amalgamated with the Revenue Survey Department was Rs. 12,07,966, the annual addition to the revenue derived from inams being Rs. 2,69,257 in the year 1918-19.

(b) From
1881-1917.

Though the Inam Settlement was completed in 1851, there was a long interval of eighteen years between this and the completion of original survey and settlement in the several districts of the State. The final title-deeds for minor inams after the allocation of excesses in them and the survey valuation of whole Inam villages for the purpose of fixing quit-rent and cesses could only be effected in each taluk after the completion of the survey. The question of the settlement of excess in minor inams having been disposed of in 1886 and charges on account of excess in the case of *Dēvadāya* Inams having been fully remitted, all the minor Inams in Government villages have been allocated and final

Inam
operations
subsequent to
Survey
Settlement.

title-deeds issued. Copies of revised final quit-rent registers of all the taluks have been issued for reference and record in all the important revenue offices.

Classification
of Inams.

The Inams may be divided into seven classes as shown below :—

I. *Dēvadāya*.—This comprises the Inams belonging to the religious institutions of the country, there being nearly as many grants as there are villages in the State. The area and assessment in this class are swollen by the inclusion of the ancient Jagir and endowment of Sringeri which is about 44 square miles in extent and has been surveyed and settled.

II. *Dharmādāya*. This class which comprises the Inams granted to charitable institutions, etc., is comparatively small as regards the number of title-deeds issued; but the average area is large chiefly in the case of *Chattram* Inams which were usually granted out of large waste areas. The cash inams in this class are chiefly on account of Government *chattrams*.

III. *Personal*.—This class comprising all inams held for personal benefit is a large one. An immense proportion consists of Inams granted to Brāhmans for livelihood; and the large Jagir of Yelandur, the quit-rent on which (Rs. 6,241) was not agreed to and for the succession to which there is a special Regulation (I of 1885) is included in this class. The cash inams are chiefly what are known as malnad cash payments where the inams were regarded as assignments on the revenue and were accordingly settled as ready money grants.

IV. *Kodagi*.—This for the most part consists of Kodagi Inams described in para 6 above with a few "Bavadi Dasvandum" Inams for the up-keep of wells. The Kodagi Inams in whole Inam villages were few in number and were not enfranchised under the Kodagi Inam Rules of 1876-77. Lands granted as Kodagi Inams were almost invariably wet land.

V. *Inams for miscellaneous service*.—This class comprises inams granted for Miscellaneous, Police, Revenue and Communal service as distinct from village service, by former rulers and included Deshpandi, Deshmukhi, Deshkulkarni, Setti, Kerebandi Gidagaval, Hasaragaval, etc., inams. These were disposed of under Inam Rule VIII C and F.

VI. *Village Artizan Inams*.—This comprises of inams granted to artizans and others for services rendered to the village community. They were confirmed hereditarily under Rule VIII (E) subject to performance of service.

VII. *Village Service*.—Inams held for village service in Government villages were merely registered for being dealt with by the Survey Department, the Inams held for village service in alienated villages being alone settled by the Inam Commission.

Government in their order No. 28-48—L. R. 482-17-42, dated 2nd July 1925 have passed orders on the recommendations of the Inam Commission appointed in their order dated 18th July 1918, to investigate into the several questions affecting the relationship between Inamdars, their tenants and the Government and the administration of Inam villages. In view of the recommendation of the Commission, Government have ordered the modification of the several provisions of the Land Revenue Code relating to the subject. (See Volume III, *Economic*, Chapter XI).

Relationship
between
Inamdars,
their tenants,
and the
Government.

APPENDICES.

STATISTICAL STATEMENTS.

I. *Statement of Land Inams in 1866.*

Period of Inams	Whole villages		Minor Inams	
	Valuation	Jodi or light assessment	Valuation	Jodi or light assessment
	Rs	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
To the termination of Dewan Purnaiya's Administration in 1810	2,86,038	1,32,150	4,99,528	1,48,134
Granted during the Maharaja's Administration, 1811 to 1831.	3,19,167	62,435	85,025	...
Granted by the Chief Commissioner of Mysore	18,500	8,000
Sthal or unauthorized inams	63,616	17,916
Total ...	6,05,205	1,94,585	6,16,669	1,74,080

II. Statement of cash grant in 1868.

Granted	Up to Dewan Purnaiya's resignation 1810	By the Maharaja	By the Chief Commissioner	Total
	Rs. a. p.	lis. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
Nagad Muzrai.	1,42,115 2 4	1,40,234 7 7	19,678 4 7	3,02,027 14 7

SECTION 2.—EXCISE ADMINISTRATION.

Sources of
Excise
Revenue.

The two principal sources of excise revenue are toddy and arrack. The former drawn from the date-palm and also from cocoa-nut, palmyra and bagani palms, is the immemorial beverage of the agricultural classes and is a mild and comparatively innocuous drink, its average alcoholic strength being $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. Arrack, which is far stronger and more harmful, is chiefly consumed by industrial labourers, and has an average alcoholic strength of $39\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.

Prior to the
British Com-
mission.

Abkari was, in former times, known as *Panchabab*, that is five items consisting of toddy, arrack, ganja, *pan* (betel-leaf) and tobacco. The last two items were transferred respectively in 1838-39 and 1850-51 to the head of sayar or customs.

During the
Commission
period.

Up to the year 1862 the revenue from toddy, arrack and ganja was derived by Government directly from the individual manufacturers or suppliers who were themselves the wholesale vendors or retailers in the several places, but, in that year, the abkari revenue was temporarily framed out to contractors. Between the years 1863-64 and 1865-66, the Sadar Distillery system was introduced, according to which a distillery was opened at the head-quarters of each district (and in other places if the consumption required it) in which all country spirits

consumed in the district were to be manufactured. Any person could erect a still at his own expense within an enclosure and distil as much liquor as he pleased removing it himself or selling it to licensed vendors on the sole condition that before removal, the excise duty was paid and the liquor reduced to the authorized strength.

The sale of fermented toddy was also subject to regulations but only arrack was worked under the Sadar Distillery system. Toddy and ganja were framed out to contractors.

In 1874, the still head duty which had varied in different parts from Re. 0-14-0 to Rs. 3 was raised to Rs. 2 per gallon throughout the State, except in the cities of Bangalore and Mysore, in which the rates were fixed at Rs. 3 and Rs. 2-8-0 respectively. The strength of the liquors to be issued from the distillery was fixed at 19° U.P.

In 1875, a special arrangement for three years was made for the Mysore District with the 'Ashtagram Sugar Works' at Palhalli, by which the Company contracted to manufacture liquor at 20° U.P. and sell it to Government at Re. 0-13-0 per gallon. The liquor was sold to vendors on the spot at Rs. 4 per gallon, when intended for consumption in the city of Mysore and at Rs. 3-8-0 elsewhere within the State. The retail vendors were bound to sell to the public within the city of Mysore at Rs. 5 per gallon and beyond the City at Rs. 4-8-0.

In 1879-79, the Sadar Distillery system was discontinued in the Nandidrug Division, the exclusive right of manufacturing and selling arrack being given out on contract for three years and this was gradually extended to the Ashtagram and Nagar Divisions of the State, followed by the guaranteed minimum Central Distillery system.

After the
Rendition.

From 1st April 1884, the separate distilleries at Mysore and Chitaldrug were abolished, arrack required for the districts of Bangalore, Tumkur, Kolar and Hassan being supplied from the Bangalore Distillery and to the other parts of the State by a distillery at Shimoga. From 1st April 1888 the distillery at Shimoga was also abolished, the distillery at Bangalore supplying the whole State including the Civil and Military Station.

Till the 31st March 1892, the monopoly of manufacturing spirits in the Central Distillery at Bangalore and the right of vending it throughout the State was rented out to a single contractor who guaranteed a certain amount of minimum revenue annually and was allowed a certain reduction out of the duty payable for all liquor sold in excess of the quantity required to secure the guaranteed amount.

In the year 1891-92, the revenue under Sayar was ordered not to be shown in the Excise Commissioner's report as he had ceased to exercise any control over it.

The Contract
Distillery
System.

The contract distillery system which has been accepted by the Government of India as the best and most suitable arrangement for the supply of liquor has been in force in the Mysore State from 1892-93 with a number of country pot-stills working in the Central Distillery at Bangalore and has been gradually developed, conforming to all the conditions which the Government of India have indicated as necessary in their review of the report of the Excise Committee. The process of manufacture in the distillery is subject to complete and careful Government supervision, the distillery operations being controlled by an efficient and responsible staff.

Vend Rent
System.

From 1st April 1892, the single monopoly was split up into three branches:—manufacture, carriage and sale, the manufacture of spirits at the Central Distillery being

quite different in kind from distribution. The two processes were separated and the right of manufacture was separately leased out. Regarding sales, separate minor farms were established as 'Vend Rent circles or farms and as separate shops.' Each district was divided into defined tracts by each taluk or hobli or group of hoblis according to local circumstances. Each of these farms consisted of two or more shops. Before the commencement of each official year, the right of retail vend was put up to auction. This was called the "Vend Rent System." The farmers in all the districts, except Bangalore, drew their supplies direct from the manufacturing contractors on payment of duty to Government at the local treasuries and of the price of arrack at the rate fixed by Government to the manufacturing contractors, while those in the Bangalore District, excepting the City of Bangalore, drew their supplies direct from the Distillery.

In the Cities of Bangalore and Mysore and in the Kolar Gold Fields, the right of retail vend, *i.e.*, the license for each shop, was sold separately by public auction. This was called the separate shop system. In the year 1897-98, the separate arrack shop system was extended to the head-quarter towns of Kolar, Tumkur, Hassan, Kadar and Shimoga. Subsequently this system was introduced throughout the State by the gradual discontinuance of the vend farm system.

Separate
Shop System.

Bonded warehouses were established at stations where wholesale depôts existed up to 31st March 1892. They were under the management of contractors who carried the liquor for distribution to the persons who directly conducted the sale in farms or separate shops and were paid for the work at rates fixed from time to time for different localities, the carrying contractors taking arrack from the Central Distillery under bond to the depôts

Bonded Ware-
houses.

upon indents furnished by the Depôt Mutsaddies and the vend rent farmers receiving their supplies from the Depôt Mutsaddies on production of treasury receipts for duty and price due on the quantity required.

Supply to the
Civil and
Military
Station.

The arrack manufactured in the Central Distillery was issued to the Civil and Military Station by the manufacturing contractors on payment of the price of liquor at rates prescribed by the Mysore Government, the duty on such arrack being credited to the Resident's Treasury and the proportionate cost of establishment maintained by the Durbar at the Distillery being reimbursed by the Residency.

Supply to
Coorg.

From the year 1907-08, the manufacturing contractors have been permitted, whenever they applied for permission, to export arrack to Coorg, duty free, on condition that the spirit transported should be of over-proof strength and that they should pay proportionate charges for the Central Distillery Establishment.

Still Head
duty.

In 1891-92, the rate of duty was raised from Rs. 3-10-2 to Rs. 4 and Rs. 3-14-0 per gallon of 20° U.P. for *maidan* and *malnad* taluks respectively. The retail price continued at Rs. 5-5-0 per gallon of 20° U.P. and proportionately for higher and lower strengths. In 1894-95, the duty was made uniform (Rs. 4 per gallon) throughout the State. In the year 1897-98, the rate of still head duty was raised from Rs. 4 to Rs. 4-12-0 and that of retail price of arrack from Rs. 5-5-0 to Rs. 6-6-0 per gallon of 20° U.P.

In the year 1909-10, the strength of arrack was reduced from 20° U.P. to 25° U.P. and the duty raised from Rs. 5-15-0 to Rs. 6-5-4 per proof gallon and subsequently to Rs. 7 per proof gallon with the object of putting down the consumption. During the year 1916-17, the strength

of both molasses and jaggory arrack was reduced from 25° U.P. to 30° U.P. and this was reduced to 35° U.P. from 1st July 1919.

The current rate of duty is Rs. 6 per gallon of arrack of 35° U.P. for the cities of Bangalore, Mysore and Bowringpet Taluk, and Rs. 5-4-0 for the rest of the State. The duty is proportionately fixed for other kinds of liquors of higher strength.

The exclusive right of drawing and vending toddy was rented out to contractors for terms which varied in different revenue divisions. The area over which such right could be exercised varied from a taluk to a district according to the circumstances of the district and means of the contractor. Till 1872, the right of vending and drawing toddy was farmed out annually in the Nandidrug and Ashtagram Divisions and five years later on, in Nagar also. Till 1890, the monopoly (of vending toddy in the districts of Bangalore, Tumkur, Kolar, Mysore, Hassan and Chitaldrug) was given away by tender by districts and by sale in the districts of Kadur and Shimoga. One of the conditions was that the contractor should not sell toddy at rates lower than the minimum rates fixed by Government.

Date Toddy :
Right of
drawing and
vending.

From 1st April 1892, the above system was discontinued being virtually a monopoly in the hands of a few wealthy capitalists, between whom and the Durbar there was a large class of middlemen. Later, shops were sold separately by public auction.

The current retail rate is Re. 0-2-0 per quart bottle or Re. 0-3-0 per seer in important industrial areas.

The right of drawing toddy from bagani trees with power to sell it to the public is sold every year by villages in the Hassan, Kadur and Shimoga Districts. There are no bagani trees in other districts.

Bagani Toddy

Supply to
the Civil and
Military
Station.

From 1st April to 31st December 1893, the toddy revenue farm for the Bangalore Taluk including the Civil and Military Station was, for want of proper bids, managed by the Mysore Government, under the Amāni system and the net revenue realised from sales in the Civil and Military Station was paid into the Resident's Treasury. From 1st January 1894, the Civil and Military Station and the City of Bangalore were constituted a separate farm and the revenue derived was divided between the Station and the City in proportion to the actual consumption in each locality.

From the year 1898-99, the toddy shops of the Civil and Military Station were excluded from the toddy contract of the City of Bangalore, arrangements for their separate sale having been made by the authorities of the Civil and Military Station.

The tree-tax
system.

A preliminary form of the tree-tax system was first introduced in 1897-98. Tax was levied at the following rates:—

	Rs.	a.	p.
Date	1	1	0
Palmyra	1	9	6
Cocoa-nut	2	2	0
Bagani	1	9	6
Dodasal	0	8	6

Under the tree-tax system, the independent shopkeepers have to draw toddy from the trees in the groves assigned to the shops and from those in private lands under arrangements between themselves and the owners of such lands, after obtaining a tapping license for the purpose and getting the trees marked with paint specified for each year by the local excise officers on payment of the first instalment of tree-tax at the rates prescribed from time to time. The second instalment is allowed to be paid before the end of the second month of tapping.

The rates were revised in the year 1907-08, and the rates on date and bagani trees were raised from Rs. 1-1-0 and 1-9-6 to Rs. 1-4-0 and Rs. 2, respectively. The separate levy of local cess on tree-tax and on the rental of shops was discontinued.

Again in the year 1911, the rates were raised as shown below:—

			Rs.	a.	p.
Date	1	8	0
Cocoa-nut	2	6	0
Palmyra	1	12	0
Bagani	2	0	0
Dodasal	0	12	0

The rates were further revised as shown below from 1st July 1915 with a view to assimilate the rates prevailing in the Mysore State with those in the Madras Presidency:—

Revision of rates.

			Rs.	a.	p.
Date	2	0	0
Cocoa-nut	3	0	0

With enhancement sanctioned during 1921-22 and 1922-23, the current rates for tree-tax per annum are:—

			Rs.	a.	p.
Date	2	8	0
Cocoa-nut	9	0	0
Bagani	2	4	0
Palmyra	2	0	0
Dodasal	1	0	0

On a representation made by the members of the Representative Assembly, the term of the lease of the date toddy shops was extended from one to three years, in certain taluks, as an experimental measure in the year 1909-10, and was continued till the end of the year 1917-18. During the years 1917-18 to 1920-21, the lease was sold for one year only.

The term of the lease.

Arrangement
with the
Madras Gov-
ernment.

An arrangement was arrived at with the Madras Government in 1897-98, under which the tree-tax on toddy produced by the trees in the Madras Presidency but consumed in the Mysore State was credited to Mysore Government and *vice versa*, the rate of tree-tax paid in such cases being the highest in force on either side of the frontier. It was also agreed that while opening new excise shops on either side within five miles of the frontier, there should be mutual consultation so as to maintain the *status quo ante*.

Excise policy
and legal
control.

All date trees growing on Government or *raitwari* lands whether occupied or unoccupied are regarded as at the disposal of Government for abkari purposes; but trees growing on occupied Government lands in the surveyed taluks and those in Inam and Kayamgutta villages are regarded as the property of the land-holder, and are therefore excluded from the assignment lists. Date reserves were formed in each district on waste or unoccupied lands demarcated for the purpose as survey progressed. No grant of land for cultivation was made within the limits of such reserves without first consulting the requirements of the Excise Department.

In consequence of the paucity of date groves in some taluks and under the declining conditions in other taluks, Deputy Commissioners were requested to raise date plantations in suitable localities making provision to reserve lands containing date trees. In view of the introduction of the tree-tax system under which trees marked by Excise Officers had to be used for the manufacture of toddy, arrangements were made for the division of groves assigned to each toddy vend farm into groups and for the issue of tapping licenses only for one-half of such groves every year, so that complete rest from tapping may be secured to all trees in every alternate year. With a view to further improve the condition of the groves and to

throw open unnecessary reserved lands for the purpose of cultivation, the old reserve lists are being revised by a special staff deputed for the purpose.

In 1912-13, the legal position of the owners of toddy-yielding trees and their liability to Government for arrears of tree-tax in case of default by the licensee were fixed definitely.

Beer is a fermented liquor made from malted grain, but commonly from barley-malt with hops or some other substance to impart a bitter flavour. The word "Beer" is now the common generic term for all fermented malt liquors and indeed for all other beverages prepared by a process of brewing. The beer or *porter* sold in this State should not contain more than 9 per cent alcohol by volume, *i.e.*, 92.8° U.P.

Beer:—Definition.

Duty which was being levied at the rate of four annas per gallon was reduced to two annas from 1st March 1879 and the taverns which were four in number in the City of Bangalore in 1886 were raised to six in August 1889. The license fee for taverns was Rs. 15 per mensem plus Rs. 2 for hogs-head on all beer sold in excess of 7½ hogs-head a month. There was a wholesale and retail beer shop in the Kolar Gold Fields in 1888 and the rates of duty were the same as in Bangalore.

Beer Taverns.

The beer taverns were closed on the 16th July 1892 as the manufacturer and wholesale vendor of country beer failed to supply them with beer. The Brewery in Bangalore ceased to exist from that year. In the following two years, the country beer manufactured by Messrs. Leishman and Company, at Ootacamund, was supplied to the taverns at Bangalore City.

In 1896-97, a local cess at the rate of one anna per rupee was levied along with the usual rate of duty on

beer. It was not till 1898-99 that supplies were obtained from a brewery in the Civil and Military Station.

Country Beer Three country beer taverns which existed in the Bangalore City were closed in 1902-03. There were only two taverns in the State since 1902-1903, one at Bowringpet and another at the Kolar Gold Fields. In 1905-06, the beer shops were again revived in the Bangalore City and closed in 1907-08.

Duty on Beer In 1907-08, the rate of duty was raised from two annas to two annas one and half pies so as to include in it the local cess which was being levied separately. During the year 1916-17, the duty on beer was enhanced from Re. 0-2-1½ to Re. 0-4-6. It was subsequently raised to Re. 0-6-6 and finally to Re. 0-8-0 in 1921-22.

Grant of permits. With a view to bring the import of beer under closer supervision, a system of transport permits on prepayment of duty was introduced in 1907-08. Permits are being issued from the Excise Commissioner's Office.

Annual Sales. The taverns were brought under the operation of annual sales as an experimental measure with effect from 1909-10. In 1917-18, there was only one tavern in the State and that, at the Kolar Gold Fields. It was leased for a period of three years on the average rental of the past three years with effect from 1st July 1916.

Bottled Beer. The privilege of selling Bangalore beer in bottles was extended to foreign liquor shops in 1910-11 but was withdrawn from 1912-13, except in the case of Railway Refreshment Rooms, and dining car licences but such beer was allowed to be sold in separate shops in localities where the demand was great. Three separate shops to sell bottled beer were ordered to be opened tentatively at

Bangalore and Mysore Cities and in the Kolar Gold Fields during the year 1912-13, and the same system is being continued.

In *malnad* tracts, a fermented liquor called *Akkibhoja* Akkibhoja. (rice-beer) is manufactured and sold. It was brought under the operation of the Excise Law and rules were framed in 1901-02. The privilege of manufacturing and selling it is now being sold annually by public auction.

Foreign spirits and foreign fermented liquors are such Foreign
Spirits and
Liquors—
Definition. as are manufactured in any place in Europe, America or Australia and imported into the State of Mysore after due payment of duty to the British Indian Government at the port of importation into India.

The revenues derived by the State are license fees, License and
other fees. registration and surcharge fees. No surcharge fee is payable on occasional auctioners' chemists' and druggists' licenses.

The registration fees are levied only on licensees of the retail shops and hotel and refreshment rooms in Bangalore and Mysore Cities. The license fees on dining cars are fixed having regard to the condition of the sales at a sum not less than Rs. 15 and not higher than Rs. 60 per annum when the sales do not exceed 500 gallons a year. The revision of license fees is dependent upon the expansion of traffic in foreign liquors based on the sliding scale fixed from time to time. The license fees on foreign liquor shops have been enhanced by 25 per cent with effect from 1st July 1916. The retail off licenses in the Cities of Bangalore, Mysore and Kolar Gold Fields are being disposed of by inviting tenders from 1920-21. Rules enacting the bottling of foreign liquors were issued in March 1923. The retail off foreign

liquor shops were ordered to be disposed of for a period of 3 years instead of annually from 1st July 1922.

Ganja—Its
cultivation.

The cultivation of ganja, without permission, was prohibited so far back as 1886. The stuff required for consumption was obtained from the Madras Presidency and encouragement to local cultivators was also given whenever they evinced an interest in its cultivation. Attempts for its cultivation on an extensive scale were made in the year 1903-04, and certain centres were opened in the taluks of Bangalore, Anekal, Hoskote and Mysore under departmental supervision. Five hundred and fifteen acres were brought under cultivation with an outturn of 22,932 seers. The acreage decreased year after year with the result that in 1907-08, it fell to 47½ acres. In the year 1909-10, it was decided to grow the stuff through the departmental agency, and fields round about Dodkurgod and Goribidnur were selected. The raiyats took active interest, and marked improvement both in quality and quantity was perceived in 1912-13. Good remuneration given to the cultivators brought in keen competition among them. The local variety has become popular among the consumers and it has already replaced the imported variety from the Madras Presidency.

Sale of Ganja
to the public.

The minimum guaranteed system by which the wholesale vendor guaranteed a certain amount to Government was in vogue in 1886.

The ganja required was obtained through a contractor who deposited it at the head-quarter depôt in the Government Central Distillery buildings from which it was issued to the wholesale depôts established at authorized places for sale to retail vendors. The system continued till 1895 when the monopoly of the wholesale vend of ganja was disposed of by tender, every tender specifying the amount of revenue guaranteed to

Government. The person whose tender was accepted was required to sell, wholesale, the requisite quantity of ganja and its preparations to retail vendors at the rate fixed by Government on 1st April 1887.

In July 1902, the system of wholesale vend of ganja through a contractor was abolished, the Government dealing directly with the retail vendors and this is the practice followed at present.

The wholesale and retail prices fixed by Government for the year 1886-87 were as follows:—

		In Bangalore and Mysore.	In other places of the State.
		As.	As.
Ganja	{ Wholesale	... 10 per seer	9
	{ Retail	... 13 „	12
Majum	{ Wholesale	... 4 „	4
	{ Retail	... 6 „	6

Wholesale
and retail
prices.

From 1st April 1887, the rates of Bangalore and Mysore were introduced to the whole State. The rates of duty payable to Government on the wholesale vend of ganja and majum were fixed at annas 0-6-0 and 0-2-0 per seer of 24 tolas, respectively.

Rules were revised in 1898 to assimilate, as far as possible, the rates of duty and retail price in the Mysore State with those in the Madras Presidency. The following were the rates introduced under the revised rules:—

—			Duty	Wholesale price	Retail
			Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
Ganja	3 0 0	4 4 0	5 0 0
Majum	0 9 0	1 1 0	1 10 8

From 1st July 1904, the retail price of ganja was raised from anna 1 to annas 2 per tola. A further enhancement of the rates of duty on ganja and majum, *viz.*, Rs. 5 and Rs. 1-1-0 respectively, was brought into effect from 1st July 1907. The duty on ganja was raised to Rs. 7-8-0 per seer of 80 tolas in the year 1910 and the fixed selling price of annas 2 per tola was converted into a minimum selling price. From 1st July 1914, the rate of duty on ganja was further enhanced to Rs. 10 and again to Rs. 12-8-0 from 1st July 1915. The current rates of duty and price on ganja are (1) Rs. 20 and (2) Rs. 1-12-0 respectively per seer of 80 tolas. There is practically no transaction of bhang and majum.

License fees.

Till the year 1896, no fee was fixed by Government for the retail vend of ganja except in the Cities of Bangalore and Mysore where a fee of Rs. 3 was levied for each license. This system was abolished and graduated rates of license fees as noted below were prescribed by Government and given effect to from 1st January 1896.

				Rs.
1st class shop with an income of Rs. 29 and more per mensem				10
2nd class	"	Rs. 20	"	5
3rd class	"	Rs. 10	"	2
4th class	"	Rs. 5	"	nil

The system of levying fees continued till 30th June 1897, and subsequently the drug shops were sold by public auction.

Opium—Its Supply.

No poppy cultivation is carried on in the State. The requisite supply was obtained till 1903 from the British Opium Agent at Malwa and subsequently from the Madras Store House. The Comptroller to the Government of Mysore indents for it through the Residency and issues it to the Treasuries which sell it at a fixed price to the licensees. The Excise Department controls the retail sale.

The net revenue to Government from opium is the difference between the price paid by Government for importing it from British India and the price at which the drug is sold to retail sellers for issue to consumers, *plus* the fees on licenses for retail vend. Revenue.

The price of opium fixed by the Madras Government has differed from Rs. 5-9-0 to Rs. 7-14-0 per lb. of 38·8 tolas from May 1904 up to December 1905. In 1908, the Durbar had to pay Rs. 11-9-0 per seer of 80 tolas, but from 1st April 1916, the Government of Madras have decided on issuing at Rs. 12 per seer. Price of opium.

From the year 1886, licensed vendors obtained the drug from the Treasuries by paying Rs. 31-4-0 per seer of 80 tolas, while the consumers purchased it at Rs. 37-8-0 per seer. With a view to bring the vend prices of opium in Mysore as near as possible to those prevailing in the frontier tracts of Madras Presidency, the issue price to licensed vendor was raised to Rs. 37-8-0 per seer and the rate of retail vend to Rs. 45 per seer of 80 tolas with effect from 1st July 1907. From 1st July 1916, the issue price was raised to Rs. 41-8-0 per seer. The issue price is being steadily raised to check consumption and the rate to be in force from 1st July 1924 is Rs. 70 for a seer of 80 tolas. Licensed vendors of opium.

The licensees are now at liberty to sell opium to their customers, at any price they please, the only restriction being that they should not sell it below the prescribed minimum rate.

Till 1894, a fee of Rs. 9 per quarter was levied for each vendor's license in the towns of Bangalore, Mysore, Shimoga and Chikmagalur, and in other stations no fee was levied except where the sales in any shop exceeded Rs. 6 per mensem, in which case, a small fee of annas 8 License fees.

was levied. From 1st July 1894, revised rules came into force according to which no fees were levied for licenses issued to medical practitioners. Shops were classified by the Excise Commissioner and fees levied according to the following scale:—

		Rs.	a.	p.	
1st class shop	...	10	0	0	per mensem.
2nd class shop	..	3	0	0	„
3rd class shop	...	0	8	0	„
4th class shop	...		nil		

The fee on each license was payable quarterly in advance on 1st July, 1st October, 1st January and 1st April in each year together with an extra charge of annas 4 on sales of every seer in excess of 16 seers of opium per mensem. The system continued to be in force till 30th June 1897 when, owing to keen competition for licenses, shops were sold by public auction and this practice is in existence at present.

Cocaine.

In their Order No. Fl. 5226—S.R. 98-05-5, dated 23rd February 1906, the Government prescribed rules for issue of licenses for the sale of cocaine and in their Order No. Fl. 4128—S.R. 188-07, dated 15th March 1909, modified the above rules. The sale of cocaine or novocaine without a license is illegal and the licenses are issued by the Deputy Commissioners after obtaining the sanction of the Excise Commissioner, free of fee, to approved persons on their showing that they have a legitimate demand for the drug as medical practitioners or as chemists and druggists and the sale of cocaine or novocaine except to a licensed vendor is allowed only on the prescription of a medical practitioner.

Growth of Excise Revenue.

The excise revenue, which was about Rs. 12 lakhs a year till 1886-87, has risen to Rs. 73·5 lakhs during the year 1923-24. The increase is due to improved

management involving the abolition of middle men, to measures adopted for suppression of illicit distillation and importation of contraband liquor, to *higher rates of duty and of tree tax*, to prosperous seasons, to increased wages of labour and to increased consumption chiefly by the migratory gangs of coolies engaged in Public Works, Gold Mines and Plantations.

A statement showing the revenue of the department during the decades from 1842-43 to 1912-13 and from 1913-14 to 1917-18 is given at the end of this section.

The incidence of excise revenue per head of population was about Rs. 1-4-0 in 1923-24.

Incidence of
Excise
Revenue.

A school for the training of the Excise staff in technical matters was opened in 1909-10 and was closed in the year 1912-13, as all the departmental men had undergone a course of training.

A Training
School for
Excise Staff.

In the year 1912-13, a Provincial Detective Department, with a Superintendent at its head, was organized tentatively and this was made permanent from 24th February 1920 under the designation of "Excise Intelligence Bureau."

Detective
Department.

The Government have published an *Excise Manual* in 3 volumes. The first contains :—

Excise
Manual.

- (i) the Mysore Excise Regulation No. V of 1904 and 1906
- (ii) the Opium Act 1 of 1878.
- (iii) the Methylated Spirit Regulation No. II of 1885, and
- (iv) rules regarding arrack, toddy, ganja, beer, foreign liquors, akkibhoja, cocaine, opium, methylated spirits and miscellaneous notifications and rules issued by Government and the Excise Commissioner from time to time.

Volume II contains departmental circulars and orders about the distillery, tree tapping, issue of licenses, crimes and procedure relating thereto, inspection of

shops, groves, etc., and matters of general information and Volume III contains statements, etc.

Local Option. The question of consulting local opinion as regards opening of new shops or closing existing ones having been urged by the members of the Representative Assembly during 1916, Government in March 1917 sanctioned the proposals of the Excise Commissioner to form Licensing Boards in the Cities of Bangalore and Mysore and in the Kolar Gold Fields for a period of two years which have since been made permanent. The Licensing Boards shall consist of the following members:—

- (i) The Deputy Commissioner, (Chairman).
- (ii) The Superintendent of Police.
- (iii) The District Excise Officer (Secretary).
- (iv) & (v) Two members elected by the City Municipal Council (or Sanitary Board in the case of the Kolar Gold Fields).
- (vi & vii) Two members nominated by the Deputy Commissioner, one from the local Temperance Association and the other from large employers of labour. In other District Head-quarter towns, Excise Advisory Committees have been formed. The functions of these Committees are purely advisory.

**Excise
Administra-
tion and Staff.**

The excise administration of the State is vested in the Excise Commissioner, with a Personal Assistant to assist him in his office work.

The District Administration is vested in the Deputy Commissioner assisted by a District Excise Officer who is charged with the detailed working of the rules, etc., subject to the general supervision of the Deputy Commissioner. After the introduction of the scheme of separation of judicial and executive functions, the posts of 5 District officers attached to the Bangalore, Mysore, Shimoga, Kadur and Kolar Districts were abolished, the Revenue Sub-Division Officers being placed in charge of the duties of District Excise Officers in their respective Sub-Divisions in these Districts.

A District is sub-divided into "Ranges" each consisting of a Taluk or group of Taluks and placed in charge of an Inspector. The range is further sub-divided into "Sub-ranges" each of which is placed in charge of an Assistant Inspector with a staff of two or three tree-markers and a peon. Each Range office is allowed a clerk to help the Excise Inspector in his office work. Excise Patrol Sub-Inspectors are attached to some Ranges for patrol and detection work. There is an Excise Intelligence Bureau consisting of 4 officers and 9 men to work as an emergency staff, under the charge of the Head-quarter Assistant to the Excise Commissioner. The recruitment of Inspectors and Assistant Inspectors is governed by Government Order No. 1437-8-Ex. 1397-98, dated 30th November 1903, which requires them to have passed the Local Service Excise and Criminal Examinations.

The following statement gives particulars of the staff of the Excise Department as it stood on the 1st of July 1925 :—

Gazetted Officers	Non-Gazetted Executive Officers	Number of Clerks	Menials
4	220	153	607

Total cost Rs. 3,18,575.

In their Order No. 538-47—Ex. F. 6-1900, dated 4th June 1902, the Government approved of the proposals of the Excise Commissioner regarding uniforms for Inspectors, Assistant Inspectors, Sub-Inspectors and Peons. Inspectors and Assistant Inspectors were required to provide themselves with uniforms, at their own cost ; those of Sub-Inspectors and Peons are being given by Government.

Uniforms for
the Excise
Staff.

In 1901, the Government, in their Order No. 2074-83—R. F. 166-92, dated 2nd August 1901, passed rules for the settlement of the claims of holders of alienated

Inamdars' claim to Excise Revenue from Toddy.

villages to the several items of revenue from toddy, in connection with their villages, and their adjustment. Some difficulties having risen in working the above rules, the Government, in 1916, introduced some modifications and called for the views and suggestions of the public thereon, and disposed of the matter finally in their Order No. Fl. 3697-706—S. R. 94-14-3, dated 30th December 1916, according to which the following two rules are the most important :—

(i) "The proprietor of an alienated village, who is entitled to excise revenue from toddy, shall get only the revenue actually accruing in his village, whether in the shape of rent for the shop or shops situated therein, or the tree tax on the trees tapped in his village (irrespective of the location of the shop for which they are tapped) or both, minus the local cess thereon and the establishment charges at 6 per cent of the revenue or such other rate as may be fixed from time to time."

(ii) When under the provision of Excise laws, shops of alienated villages are ordered to be closed permanently on the ground of there being too many shops or for any other valid reason, the proprietors of such villages will be awarded reasonable amount of compensation which will be fixed for the present at 20 times the average annual amount actually paid in respect of such shops during the preceding three years."

Concessions
to the Mysore
Pharmaceuti-
cals.

To afford encouragement to chemical industries, Government, in their Pro. No. G. 4508-12 G. M. 67-13-132, dated 5th December 1913, sanctioned the grant of certain concessions to this Company, the most important of them being the supply of alcohol at cost price and at a reduced rate of duty. In Pro. No. 4974-75—A. I. 96-14-9, dated 12th May 1915, Government made it incumbent on the Company to pay in advance the duty on the alcohol required before its removal from the Distillery and provided for refunds on articles exported out of Mysore on which any further duty was levied at the place of import ;

an allowance of 12½ per cent for wastage was also granted to the Company. In their Order No. Fl. 3510-12.—S. R. 32-15-9, dated 22nd January 1916, Government sanctioned the refund to the Company of the duty paid on alcohol contained in the medical preparations supplied to the Mysore Government Medical Stores for a period of three years. In their Order No. Fl. 6430-1—S. R. 32-15-14, dated 22nd June 1916, the Government sanctioned for two years the issue of alcohol to the Company under bond and the levy of duty at a later stage. Similar concessions have been continued to the Company even up to-day by way of subventions, etc.

APPENDIX IX.

EXCISE REVENUE.

Statement showing the revenue of the Excise Department during the decades from 1842-43 to 1912-13 and from 1913-14 to 1923-24 from the two Major items—Arrack and Toddy.

Years	Arrack	Toddy	Total	Remarks
1842-43 ...	2,04,000	2,03,000	4,07,000	* This figure includes revenue from both Arrack and Toddy.
1852-53 ...	3,45,000	3,63,000	7,08,000	
1862-63	8,85,000*	
1872-73 ...	5,29,000	5,47,000	10,76,000	
1882-83 ...	6,45,000	5,33,000	11,78,000	
1892-93 ...	15,97,000	14,02,000	29,99,000	
1902-03 ...	19,01,000	17,38,000	36,39,000	
1912-13 ...	23,89,000	22,26,000	46,15,000	
1913-14 ...	25,79,000	24,22,000	49,98,000	
1914-15 ...	25,18,000	27,41,000	52,59,000	
1915-16 ...	25,25,000	27,70,000	52,95,000	
1916-17 ...	26,92,000	28,24,000	55,16,000	
1917-18 ..	30,08,000	30,76,000	60,84,000	
1918-19 ...	31,23,036	35,30,174	66,53,210	
1919-20 ...	34,10,511	37,69,032	71,79,543	
1920-21 ..	33,62,328	42,01,389	75,63,717	
1921-22 ...	31,61,413	43,21,058	74,82,471	
1922-23 ...	30,55,894	40,37,777	70,93,671	
1923-24 ...	27,62,351	39,60,648	67,20,999	

SECTION 3.—FOREST ADMINISTRATION.

Growth of the
Department
prior to the
Rendition:
Early
History.

Information is meagre concerning the history of Forest Administration in Mysore prior to the formation of this branch of Government into a separate department and the adoption of a regular system of annual reporting. In the earlier days of the late Mysore Commission as well as under the former Indian Rulers, forests appear to have been looked upon only as a source of revenue and as requiring no systematic effort or expenditure for their maintenance or regeneration. The importance of Forest Conservancy for regulation of surface springs, preservation of water courses and hill slopes, or for other climatic reasons was scarcely understood. Fire protection was unknown and the exclusion of goats and cattle was out of the question. Forests in those times owed their preservation, such as it was, to the low demand for timber which existed, as is likely, in a country in which the population is scanty and where there is little road communication and no railway. The charitable instincts of the people and the encouragement given by the Rulers of 1845 by the grant of rent-free land, etc., led to the planting, but only in isolated parts, of *topes* and avenue trees. The country is dotted all over with the former, while of the latter the stately Dhupa trees (*Vateria Indica*) which line several roads in the Malnad, planted by the Rājas of the Nagar Dynasty, afford a magnificent example.

Observant travellers like Buchanan and Wilks recorded the existence of jungles and thick woods which appear to have been since swept off the face of the country. Three factors were mainly responsible for this wholesale destruction. Firstly, the system of exploitation in vogue was to rent out the forests to the bidder guaranteeing the highest revenue. The lessees had no other interest in the forest beyond making as much profit as possible

and could hardly be expected to spare the axe. In fact, this system of leasing had the effect of offering a premium for the destruction of trees for present profit without any regard whatever for the future. For want of due protective measures, there was heavy denudation of teak and other valuable woods, chiefly on the banks of the Tunga and the Bhadra. Colonel Onslow reports, in 1847, to Sir Mark Cubbon, K.C.B., the then Commissioner, as follows :—

“ All the fine teak and other timber on the banks of the Tunga and the Bhadra rivers have disappeared. Vast quantities of various kinds of timber are yearly carried down the Tunga-Bhadra river to the open country by people who pay a small sum to the farmer of the forests for the privilege of cutting it. Teak, blackwood and ebony are forbidden to be cut, but I am well assured that the prohibited timbers are taken away in great quantities every year. We have no means whatever of preventing it.”

“ The forests are rented yearly to the highest bidder. The rentees holding their farms for a year only have no interest in preserving the forests. On the contrary, their interests are best served by their destruction. They make their profits by taking the timber cutters and Kumri cultivation ; therefore the more jungle there is cut, the greater are the profits. The consequence of this indiscriminate cutting is the total disappearance of teak in localities where it formerly abounded, especially in the vicinity of the river Tunga.” Buchanan in his journey says at page 287 : “ Here (*i.e.*, between Tirthahalli and Mandagadde in the Kavaledroog Taluk) were many fine teak trees, more indeed than I have ever seen in any one place. When at the same place in February last, I saw no teak and I saw none the whole length of the river as far as Mandagadde. There is some teak remaining in the forests near Mandagadde about 20 miles from this, but it is fast disappearing and in a few years there will be none within the reach of the river.”

“ There is no preservation of timber that stands, nor encouragement of the growth of young trees, and at the present rate of destruction there can be no doubt that in a few years

there will be no valuable timber left in places from which it can be carried away."

Kumri cultivation was the second factor which contributed not a little towards this denudation. As carried on in early times by jungle tribes who were the only source of labour supply in forests, it had a tendency unfavourable to the growth of forests especially when no attempts were made simultaneously to secure their regeneration. On this subject, the following remarks of Colonel Onslow may be interesting :—

"Kumri cultivation is mischievous in various ways. It causes the most rapid destruction of forests which, it is a well ascertained fact, lessens the quantity of rain and moisture, and must thus in course of no very long time seriously affect the cultivation and prosperity of the country. The cultivation of the Malnad is solely dependent on rain, there being no irrigation. The people of the Malnad begin already to remark that there is a diminution of rain, and I think it highly probable that it is attributable to vast extent of Kumri clearings all over the country, especially along the crests of the Ghats. The cultivation is of the rudest and simplest mode. The trees are felled in January and February and allowed to remain on the ground till the next season, when they are burnt. The earth is not turned at all and ragi, castor oil seed, or dal, is thrown broad-cast upon the ashes among the stumps. The crops thus produced are always abundant. Formerly the practice was to take only one crop and leave the clearing which then allowed the stumps to shoot out again, and the same spot would bear cultivation again after, from 12 to 20 years. But of late, the practice of repeating the process in the 2nd year has grown up. The same clearing will bear cultivation again after from 12 to 20 years when it has been cultivated for only one season; the stumps of the trees shoot out again if only once cut and burnt, but if this is done a second year, they perish root and branch, and the spot is ever after productive of nothing but scrub. The soil has been totally exhausted. It is probably the practice which did not formerly exist that has caused such extensive destruction of forests."

Kumri cultivation was prohibited on account of its injurious effect upon forests but subsequently with a view to encourage jungle tribes to settle in forests, the Government of India sanctioned its re-introduction in a modified form.

The third and by no means the least harmful was the practice of iron smelting, furnaces for which were allowed to spring up all over the country. The wasteful methods employed led to an enormous consumption of fuel and a corresponding denudation of jungles in the Maidan and regions bordering on the Malnad abounding in iron ore. The late General Dobbs, then Superintendent of the Tumkur District, thus graphically describes in 1854-55 the damages wrought to tree vegetation by iron smelters :—

“ The district generally is very bare of trees. The jungles were however extensive when I first assumed charge in 1835, but these are disappearing fast under the axe of the iron and steel manufacturers. When I first visited the beautiful range of hills running between Chiknayakanhalli and Hagalwadi, they were clothed with trees from top to bottom ; not a tree now remains except a few unfit for burning. In the immediate neighbourhood of Tumkur (Davaraidrug Hills) where three-fourths of the wooding had disappeared, I stopped the progress of destruction by prohibiting iron forges altogether. The decrease of rain amongst the hills referred to has been very marked ; no one who has not witnessed the process can conceive the destruction made by these iron forges.”

Even greater ruin was caused in the Chitaldrug District from the same cause. Almost barren waste has taken the place of former wooded tracts, and that too in a district with but scanty rainfall. Luckily some forests were preserved by not being easy of access and they are now most carefully conserved.

The conservation of Nagar forests attracted the attention of Government for the first time in 1847, when

Colonel Onslow was Superintendent. No conservancy establishment was entertained till 1858, when a small establishment costing Rs. 140 per mensem was sanctioned and from this time, real conservancy of forests commenced in Nagar with most beneficial results.

Dr. Cleghorn was charged with the duties of the Forest Department in 1847, under the orders of the Superintendent of Nagar Division. Afterwards, Drs. Kirkpatrick and Oswald performed these duties. In 1863, Lieutenant Miller succeeded, who continued till after the formation of the regular Forest Department in 1864, when he was appointed Assistant Conservator. During the latter years of what may be termed the pre-departmental period, the forests in the Ashtagram Division formed a joint charge of the Madras Forest Conservancy establishment together with the adjoining Malabar forests.

In 1799, on the fall of Seringapatam, the Begur forests (styled also Hunsur forests) measuring about 50 square miles were taken over by the British (Madras) Government for the purpose of obtaining teak timber for a Gun-carriage Factory at Seringapatam and for commissariat purposes. Subsequently, the Madras Forest Department assumed the management and worked the forests for purposes of revenue unconnected with the object of the original assignment till, the claims of Mysore being urged, the forest was restored in 1865.

Such in brief was the history of the Forest Administration in Mysore before the organization of the Department. Absence of systematic conservancy and reproductive measures, reckless felling of trees, chiefly on a license system, lack of acquaintance with the resources of forests, sum up the record of this period.

After the
Organization
of the Forest
Department.

About the year 1862, in consonance with the general revision and enlargement of establishment to meet the

requirements of a more advanced form of Government suited to the times, the then Chief Commissioner Mr. Bowring moved the Government of India to organize a department for Forest Administration. The first Conservator, Major Hunter, was appointed in 1864. The first years of the new department were occupied with gaining knowledge of the extent of the forests and their resources, and the alarm was raised that forests, supposed to contain a large, if not inexhaustible, supply of teak, were much denuded of this description of timber.

In his Administration Report for the year 1865-66, the Conservator of Forests wrote as follows:—

“The deplorable extent to which the great forests on the western frontier of the Province have been denuded of timber trees of large growth was adverted to in the last year’s report. The correctness of that opinion, which was formed after a merely cursory observation of the condition of those forests in the course of a tour, has been confirmed from the more circumstantial report of the Assistant Conservator, Lieutenant Van Someran, who, in reference to the teak, writes, ‘Not only have all the finer trees been felled, but owing to the large demand for timber and the exigency of working up to the revenue estimates, trees have been cut before maturity.’ ”

Major Hunter was succeeded in 1865 by Lieutenant Van Someran who continued as Conservator of Forests till January 1879. Forest Legislation was undertaken in 1865; one of its first acts was to prescribe the duties of Forest Officers in the matter of promoting conservancy, to reserve some forests as Government Reserved or “Royal Forests” and to form two classes of Reserved trees. The first class was sold on payment of seigniorage and the second class given free to raiyats and on prescribed seigniorage to traders. All other unclassified trees were free to raiyats but had to be paid for by traders at one rupee per cart-load. The right of individuals for trees growing on their holdings was recognised

and the Conservator given powers to forbid fellings in overworked tracts. Several acts injurious to forests were brought within the pale of law by constituting them into offences. Licenses for felling and passports for removing the forest products were, for the first time, introduced. As a result of the inspection of forests by Sir D. Brandis (then Dr.), Inspector-General of Forests, the forest rules were revised in 1869 enlarging the powers of the Forest Officers with regard to State Forests and enhancing the Legislative sanction to a fine of Rs. 500 against Rs. 50 provided in the old rules. The rights of Inamdars to timber and sandalwood growing in their lands were clearly defined as also the rights of Kan-holders in the Malnad. These rules which did not provide for the adequate security of District Forests were subsequently replaced by the rules of 1878, framed on the principles of the Indian Forest Act which had just then come into force. This enabled the framing of subsidiary rules for protecting the District Forests as well. It would be interesting to note that Casuarina plantations were started by the Department during this period for supply of fuel to Railway, Bangalore City and Civil and Military Station, an example which was eagerly followed by private agencies which now own a large number of plantations.

Abolition of
the Depart-
ment.

In 1879, the Forest Department was abolished as a separate unit of administration. The forest divisions were broken up and with only three Forest officers for the great forests in the west, as well as for the plantations, the control was made over to the District Revenue Officers, and the Department remained without a presiding officer for the last two years of the British administration. The number of trained officers was gradually decreased and eventually reduced to one and even this officer left the State in 1880.

In 1880-81, there were 32 State or reserved forests and 22 District or unreserved forests, covering about 454 and 189 square miles respectively. Thirty plantations for the growth of teak and other timber trees as well as sandal had been formed in different parts, occupying an aggregate area of 4,708 acres. Village 'topes' numbered 16,293 standing on 14,376 acres, and containing 811,308 trees, while 3,750 miles of public road had been planted with trees on both sides, at distances varying from 12 to 60 feet.

Forest area
in 1880-81.

The Department remained without a presiding officer for the first five years after the Rendition. During the interregnum in which the establishments were reduced to a minimum and placed under the Revenue Officers, the administration from a forest point of view was given a general set-back. The reserved forests were left without adequate protection, excessive and unregulated felling being mainly responsible for increased revenue.

After the
Regulation.
From 1881 to
1885-86.

In 1885-86, recognising the necessity for a departmental head, Government were pleased to appoint Mr. L. Ricketts, who also held other appointments, as Inspector-General of Forests and Plantations and to entrust him with general control of forest administration in the State. A good deal of solid progress was effected in the period of ten years during which Mr. Ricketts presided over the Department, by the addition of upwards of 700 square miles to the State Forests and Plantations and 800 square miles under fire protection, besides the encouragement of plantation and sandal reproduction. The revenue went up to nearly Rs. 14 lakhs. The establishments were revised and augmented. The *cadre* of the controlling staff was raised to eighteen officers. Three graduates were, for the first time, deputed for

From 1885-86
to 1895.

The modern
period.

training to the Imperial Forest School at Dehra Dun in 1885.

The advent of Colonel J. Walker as Conservator of Forests in December 1895 may be said to mark the modern period in the history of the development of the Mysore Forest Department. The administration thenceforward passed into professional hands, and the conservancy, protection and improvement of the State Forest proper were placed on a scientific basis.

Progress
made since
the
Rendition.

The State Forests at the close of 1923-24 stands at 3,379·10 square miles, representing 9·1 per cent of the total State area. An impetus for opening out forests has been imported by the construction of roads and bridges. Rest houses and lodges for facilitating inspection and quarters for the executive and protective staffs, etc., have been constructed wherever necessary.

Of late, the importance of forests as a wealthy asset of the State has been realised and recognised. With a view to further the preservation of even isolated small strips of forests which it would not be possible to place under the control of the Department, on account of their scattered condition, village forests are being constituted. During the past two years, 55 blocks aggregating area of 37·3 square miles have been constituted into such forests. In order to stop the reckless waste that was going on in several parts and to place restriction on the indiscriminate felling of trees, the district jungles have been placed under the control of the Revenue Department and the tree growth has been divided into reserved and classified trees.

Forest Policy
and Legal
Control
before the
Rendition.
Two lists of
trees.

The first operation of the Department after examining the forests was to prepare two lists of reserved trees. The first included 15 kinds declared to be absolutely the property of Government to fell which, wherever growing,

either raiyat or trader had to obtain a license on payment of certain fixed rates. The second list contained 27 kinds of trees, reserved from the trader, but free to the raiyat for his own use, provided they grow within his own taluk. All kinds of trees not named in these two lists were free to raiyats and might be felled by traders on payment of Re. 1 a cart-load.

In 1869, new rules were brought into operation providing for the formation of State and District Forests. The first were placed under the sole management of the Forest Department, while the last were left under the Revenue authorities, with the proviso that all reserved trees, the number of which was now reduced to nine, growing on Government land, could be sold only by the Forest Department. Raiyats were allowed unreserved wood and bamboo, free of duty for agricultural purposes, but paid a duty of Re. 1 per cart-load for wood for house building purposes. Traders were required to pay for trees of all kinds.

State and
District
Forests.

Subsequently it was found that the District authorities had not sufficient establishment to protect the forests under their nominal charge and that great waste had resulted from empowering Shekdars to grant licenses. During 1871-1872, this power was withdrawn from both Amildars and Shekdars, preparatory to the introduction of the District Forest Scheme, by 1875-1876 everywhere established, the main feature of which was the abolition of the license system and the supply of wood from depôts to all purchasers. Raiyats paying land rent were granted an absolute right over all trees growing on their holdings, provided the trees were planted by their ancestors or by themselves or by former holders of the land from whom the right of occupation had been bought by the present incumbent.

Forest
Depôts.

Tendency of
Forest
Legislation.

In relation to the new Revenue Settlement, it was decided that the Forest Department should be allowed one year in which to fell all reserved trees on holdings made over on assessment to private individuals, after the lapse of which time all such trees left unremoved by the Department, with the exception of Sandalwood, were to go to the land-holder. The whole tendency, in short, of Forest Legislation was to confer wider privileges on the holders of land and Inamdars, to define and enforce the rights of Government in all forests and over all trees not belonging under certain fixed rules to private individuals.

After the
Rendition.
The Forest
Regulation,
Rules, etc.

The Government have fully realised the importance of forests not only as yielding timber and firewood, but as affecting the rainfall, the climate and the soil, and as protecting in mountainous regions the country of the plains, the necessity for their being placed under proper State management and the advisability of the Revenue and Forest authorities working together, as forests are intimately connected with cultivation. They have also recognised that "the claims of cultivation are stronger than those of forest preservation" and that "where an effective demand for cultural land exists, and can only be supplied from forest areas, the land should ordinarily be relinquished without hesitation." A Forest Regulation was enacted and brought into force in 1901, and in 1904, a Code dealing with the organisation and internal economy of the Department and its relation with Revenue Officers was introduced. Rules defining the rights and privileges of agriculturists in District Forests were promulgated in 1901, and later on, the Malnad Raiyats' Privileges Rules and Bonus Rules on behalf of Sandal for its preservation and propagation by the land-holders were framed in 1909. The more important legal enactments and the rules and orders bearing on Forest Administration, and the rules and departmental orders issued by

Government from time to time have been compiled into a Manual,

The object of a Forest Settlement is to fix and define the legal status and extent of the proprietary rights of the State in any forest or waste land, constituted or declared to be forest within the meaning of the Forest Laws, and to enquire and record to what extent the proprietary rights of the State are limited by legally existing adverse rights of private persons or communities ; secondly, to arrange for the exercise or commutation of adverse rights so recorded, in order to allow the property being managed with the view of obtaining the best possible return, both for the present and in the future, for the general public.

Settlements,
Demarcation
and Surveys.
Forest
settlement.

The statutory provisions regarding the constitution of State Forests are contained in Chapter II of the Mysore Forest Regulation. Under Section 4, a Forest Settlement Officer is appointed by Government whenever it is proposed to constitute any land a State Forest. He may investigate and determine the existence, nature and extent of any rights claimed by or alleged to exist in favour of any persons in or over the land. Under Section 8, he may, for the purposes of his enquiry, exercise the powers of a Civil Court in the trial of suits. The orders of the Forest Settlement Officer are, under Section 15, subject to appeal to an officer specially empowered to hear such appeals. Subsidiary rules to regulate the procedure of the Forest Settlement Officer are framed under Section 76 (b) of the Regulation.

System
adopted in
Mysore.

Generally the Revenue Sub-Division Officers are entrusted with this work within their jurisdiction. Whenever large areas have to be settled, a special Provincial Settlement Officer is appointed for the purpose,

Agency for
Settlement.

the period of appointment varying with the work to be done.

Area settled.

About 3,284 square miles have been settled up to 30th June 1920. During the four years ending 30th June 1924, 22 blocks were reserved under 4 of the Forest Regulation, in addition to the 8 pending settlement at the beginning of the period. Of the total 30 blocks, 17 are reported to have been settled leaving a balance of 13 blocks for settlement.

Demarcation.

After the constitution of the forest estate, the duties of the Forest Officer commence with the protection and improvement of the areas brought under his management. In the first place, permanent demarcation is effected for the prevention of encroachment or trespass, and the method in which this is carried out varies with the value and position of the forest. All methods, however, agree in the two details of numbering the boundary marks and of clearing a belt of forest between them.

**System
adopted in
Mysore.**

The annual reclearing, widening and improvement of old demarcation lines, and the clearing of new ones is regularly attended to and it is recognised that a thoroughly cleared and properly maintained wide boundary line is indispensable for the efficient protection of forests both against fires and forest offences. Trenches are excavated wherever the boundary runs through open glades, and fences are raised on the banks formed by the excavated earth and permanent guide lines are made on either side. Of the total length of 6,193 miles of forest boundary, a length of 521 miles remained to be demarcated at the end of the year 1923-1924.

Surveys.

Following on demarcation comes the detailed survey of the forest area. It was found in the early days of

forest organisation that the maps then available were too small in scale, and possessed too little topographical detail to be of much use in forest work.

The Mysore Government, in the year 1904, recognising the necessity for a more systematic surveying and mapping of the area under State Forests, which till then was done by Forest Surveyors under the control of the District Forest Officers, sanctioned a scheme for the organization of a regular topographical survey of the State Forests and appointed for the purpose a Special Officer. Till June 1920, maps on 4" scale for 3,182 square miles of forests have been prepared.

Measures
adopted in
Mysore.

It is a well recognised fact that the greater part of the price paid by the consumer for timber and other forest produce is represented very frequently by the cost of its transport and that it is consequently the duty of the Forest Department to facilitate this as far as possible. It is also acknowledged that the State shares the advantages gained by improved means of communication in obtaining better prices for the raw products of the forests and in many instances by making them saleable at all.

Communica-
tions and
buildings.

In addition to improved means of communication, Rest houses have also to be provided in the forests to shelter Forest Officers from the inclemency of an Indian Summer and the rains of the monsoon; quarters have also to be built for the executive and protective staff.

There are few State Forests which are not traversed by high roads, constructed and maintained by the Public Works Department and the District Boards. There is, therefore, not the same necessity here as elsewhere to incur large expenditure on such works; and all that the Forest Department is required to do is to connect such

Chief
requirements
of Mysore.

portions of the forest as are inaccessible to carts by feeder roads. This work is being pushed forward. The forests are well provided with bungalows, most of which were built and are maintained by the Forest Department. Attention is being paid to the construction of Inspection Lodges and of housing the subordinate staff. During the five years ending 1920-1921, a sum of nearly 2½ lakhs was spent on works of improvement, such as the construction of roads and bridges, Rest-houses and Lodges for facilitating inspection and quarters for housing Range Officers, Foresters and Guards. During the next three years ending 1923-1924, a sum of Rs. 86,290 has been spent for the same purpose.

In their Order No. R. 11300-2—Ft. 87-14-6, dated 2nd June 1916, Government have sanctioned a quinquennial programme of buildings to be constructed by the Department involving in the aggregate a cost of Rs. 1,72,000 and have directed that works to be undertaken each year be selected in the order of urgency as follows :—

(1) Sheds and Lodges urgently required for Forest Subordinates on patrol duty.

(2) Rest-houses and forest bungalows required to facilitate inspection work.

(3) Temporary buildings or sheds in localities where forest operations are being carried on.

Government have also directed that all Rangers should be provided with quarters and offices gradually.

Reference is made in the sections on exploitation, extraction, and transport to road-trains, tramways and railways already completed and under contemplation.

Administra-
tion and
Staff.

The Conservator of Forests in Mysore is the administrative Head of the Department and the technical adviser to Government in forest matters. On account of increased and responsible work that has devolved on the

Department, the executive and protective establishments have been very much augmented from time to time. At present, the State Forests have been divided into 10 Divisional and 69 Range charges. The whole staff has been trained either in the Dehra Dun or Coimbatore and Mysore Forest Schools. Three officers have received additional training at Oxford. On account of increased demand for qualified men, a Forest School has been opened in Mysore for training Rangers and members of the protective staff. The actual cost of establishment for the year 1923-1924 was a little over Rs. 4½ lakhs.

SECTION 4.—ADMINISTRATION OF THE STAMP AND MISCELLANEOUS REVENUE.

In 1828, the Mahārāja's Government introduced a Stamp Law which brought a revenue of only a few thousands of rupees.

Pre-Rendition
Period.
From 1828-29
to 1835-36.

In 1835, with a view to prevent the production of forged documents in suits or commercial transactions, new Stamp Paper Regulations were issued. In them it was directed that in all future transactions, the Bonds, Bills of Sale, Agreements, Transfers, Deeds and other documents should be executed on stamped papers of a fixed value. Any unstamped document presented in a suit was received and filed, but only on payment of a sum equal to ten times the amount of stamp duty originally leviable upon it. Between the years 1831 to 1861, the annual yield was between Rs. 6,000 and 9,000. In two years only it reached Rs. 10,000 and in another, Rs. 15,000. In 1861-62, the old system produced its maximum revenue, *viz.*, Rs. 19,000. During these years, court fees were paid chiefly in coin and were mixed in the accounts with other receipts.

From 1835-36
to 1862-63.

From 1862-63
to 1860-81.

In 1862-63, there was a revision of local Regulations, which raised the stamp revenue to Rs. 71,628 in that year and Rs. 1,57,000 in the next and to Rs. 2,41,000 in 1864-65. In 1865, the Indian Stamp Act No. X of 1862, as amended by Act XVIII of 1865, was introduced and the revenue made rapid progress reaching 4½ lakhs in 1869-70. After that year, the amount realised from Court Fee Stamps was credited to the head of Law and Justice, but in 1875-76, the former practice was restored.

Act XXVI of 1867 which was introduced as a tentative measure was split up into two enactments, the one devoted entirely to stamp proper (Act XVIII of 1869) and the other (Act VII of 1870) to court fees. Act XVIII of 1869 was extended to the territories of Mysore from 10th January 1870. This was repealed by Act I of 1879 with a view to bring, for the convenience of the public, the provisions of the law relating to stamp duties and court fees contained in six different Acts and numerous orders, within the compass of a single enactment and to introduce measures for the much needed improved working of the law and to provide for the acquisition of a moderate increase of revenue from stamp duties. Act VII of 1870 was introduced into Mysore and this continued to be in force till 1st July 1900.

After the
Rendition.
Legislative
enactments.

In 1900, the Mysore Stamp Regulation No. II of 1900 was introduced to consolidate and amend the law relating to stamps on the lines of the new Indian Stamp Act No. II of 1899, and the Mysore Court Fees Regulation No. III of 1900 was introduced to embody, as far as applicable, all the amendments passed in British India up to date, and to make several verbal and other changes called for by the circumstances of Mysore. These two are in force in the State at present, the first as amended by Regulation II of 1908, IV of 1916 and

VII of 1922 and the second as amended by Regulation VII of 1901, I of 1908, III of 1911, V of 1911, II of 1912, IV of 1914 and VIII of 1922.

The stamps manufactured and issued by the Mysore State were :—

Description
of Stamps.

- (i) judicial, court fee labels and papers, and
- (ii) non-judicial, comprising—
 - (a) stamp papers for engrossing documents,
 - (b) one anna receipt adhesive labels,
 - (c) transfer stamps,
 - (d) foreign bill labels, notarial stamps. and
 - (e) Hundi stamps.

General, receipt and court fees stamps of the old design continued to be in use till 15th May 1914, on which date new stamps of the aforesaid descriptions bearing His Highness the Mahārāja's portrait were brought into use. For preparing copies, a special kind of stamped paper, with the words "Copy-stamps" impressed on the top of the sheet, was introduced on 1st January 1913. Likewise on 1st January 1916, the use of the old transfer, foreign bills and notarial stamps which were prepared by surcharging British Stamps of those descriptions, with the word 'Mysore,' was discontinued and stamps prepared by surcharging court fee adhesive stamps with the names of the abovenamed stamps and the required value were introduced. A new kind of stamps called 'Hundi Stamps' were introduced in February 1917.

To ensure the protection of the revenue of both Civil and Military Station and Mysore, stamps impressed on cheques, court fee labels, and other adhesive stamps intended for use in the Civil and Military Station of Bangalore are overprinted with the words "Civil and

Stamps
supplied to
the Civil and
Military
Station.

Military Station " before they are supplied to the Honorable the Resident's treasury, Bangalore.

Stamp
Manufactory.

Until 1894, the work of impressing the Mysore Government bi-colour stamps on water-marked papers was being done at the Madras Stamp Office on contract at 1,000 impressions per rupee and the stamp papers on receipt were impressed on a special hand press kept in the Superintendent's office. An establishment costing Rs. 480 per annum was permanently maintained at Madras for superintending the stamping work of this Government. The Sheristadar of the Huzur Treasury superintended the working of the Department here, under the orders of the Bakshi who was *ex-officio* Deputy Superintendent of Stamps.

In 1894, arrangements were made to establish a Stamp Manufactory at Bangalore and it commenced work in April 1895. The Stamp Manufactory, which till 1914 was located in the Public Office Buildings, was during that year removed to a new building specially constructed for it adjoining the Government Press and new machinery was installed in it and arrangements made to run it with electrical power. Stamps of various descriptions and denominations are now manufactured in the Stamp Manufactory.

The imprinting of water-marked papers, documents, etc., with the stamp dies is conducted in the Stamp Manufactory in the presence of its Supervisor to whom the stock branch of the Stamp Superintendent's office supplies the required quantity of water-marked papers which, on being stamped and dried, are forwarded to the Stamp Superintendent in sealed packets of 500 each; while general stamp papers of low value including Re. 1 are sent in packets of 1,500 each. In the case of court fees and receipt labels, the sheets are gummed and perforated before they are delivered to the Superintendent of Stamps.

The water-mark paper required for the manufacture of general stamp papers used formerly to be supplied by the Superintendent of Stamps, Madras; but from 1885-86, the Mysore Government obtained it direct from England. For the manufacture of the general, the receipt, the court fee and the copy stamps of the Mysore State, three kinds of water-marked papers are obtained. The papers used for the general and copy stamps are in sheets of two or three rolls, each of which has the words "Mysore Government" water-marked in the middle with a wavy water-line all along the edges. Those used for the receipt stamps are water-lined with 64 oblong cages of the size of the receipt labels. Each of them contained the figure "1898" in water-line, (which is the year of the introduction of this paper) till January 1916 when a double headed eagle, the emblem of Mysore, was inserted instead of the figure. For lower value court fee stamp papers, a water-marked sheet showing the water-mark "Mysore Court Fees" is used. Each sheet contains 18 oblong cages. For court fees of the value of Rs. 10 and above, the same water-line papers as for the general stamps are used.

Water-mark paper.

All these water-marked papers were, till 1915-16, in the custody of the Superintendent of the Stamp Manufactory but during that year, the custody of these papers was transferred to the Superintendent of Stamps.

The Superintendent's Office, Central Depôt, maintains at all times a reserve stock of stamps sufficient to meet one year's demand of the State. In the beginning of each official year, the Superintendent replenishes his stock by indenting upon the Stamp Manufactory. The Stamps delivered by the Manufactory are counted in his presence by his counters. Every packet is then resealed and stored in the almirahs in the strong room of the State Huzur Treasury which is secured by the joint locks of the Treasurer and himself.

Stamps—
Their stock,
receipt,
custody and
issue.

The supply of stamps to the Districts is made from the Superintendent's Office in rotation. Each District Treasury sends an indent and gets its supply four times a year. When, however, there is an unforeseen heavy demand, the Districts obtain extra quantities on supplemental indents. The District Treasury indents undergo check in the Stamp Superintendent's Office and the required quantity of stamps are then issued out of the main stock to the Supervisor of Stamp Superintendent's Office, who counter-stamps all the papers, checks them once more and despatches them to the District Treasuries in parcels insured for a nominal value of Rs. 50.

Cash transactions in the Superintendent's office.

The cash transactions in the Stamp Superintendent's Office are confined to the receipt of stamp duty and sale of foreign bill and transfer stamps and the court fees stamps of Rs. 50 and upwards. All instruments chargeable with stamp duty together with the duty thereon are received by the Stamp Superintendent and the money is credited in the State Huzur Treasury before they are sent over to the Stamp Manufactory for being impressed with the necessary stamps and on their return, they are counter-stamped in the Stamp Superintendent's Office and handed over to the parties.

On a representation made by the Advocates of the Chief Court about the inconvenience felt by them in obtaining court fees stamps of Rs. 50 and upwards at the court premises, the Supervisor of the Stamp Superintendent's Office, with whom a small stock is left for this purpose, has been made the *ex-officio* vendor of these stamps since 1893.

Stamp vendors.

Till 1902-03, the arrangement of vending stamps through the salaried and the commissioned vendors was in force, but during that year the appointments of salaried vendors were abolished and only commissioned vendors

were authorized to vend stamps under a license issued by the Deputy Commissioners of Districts. These vendors were till 1917-18 granted licenses to vend stamps up to the value of Rs. 50 only, but during that year, Deputy Commissioners were authorized to grant licenses to these vendors to vend stamps up to the value of Rs. 100 in special cases where a great demand for stamps existed.

Until November 1898, the Comptroller with the Government of Mysore continued to hold charge of the Stamp Department as *ex-officio* Superintendent of Stamps with a Deputy Superintendent in charge of the manufacture of stamps under him. In Government Order No. 6577-80—Mis. 1459, dated 25th November 1898, the Huzur Treasury Officer was appointed *ex-officio* Superintendent of Stamps and as such was assigned the custody and placed in charge of the counter-stamping and issue of stamped papers of every description. The office of the Deputy Superintendent of Stamps was, under these arrangements, abolished and the manufacture of stamps was placed under the charge of a Special Officer of the status of an Assistant Superintendent of Stamps who was designated "Officer in charge of Stamp Manufacture." Though the Comptroller was thus relieved of the direct charge of the Stamp Department, he continued to exercise general control and supervision in all matters connected with the enforcement of the rules in regard to the manufacture, custody and supply of stamps.

Administra-
tion and staff.

The above arrangement continued till June 1907. The administration of stamp revenue having been deemed to be insufficient either for developing the revenue from stamps or for protecting the interests of Government against fraud, Government, in their Order No. Fl. 9083-125—S. R. 140-06-2, dated 8th June 1907, appointed a Commissioner of Stamps and entrusted the functions of

this office to the Inspector-General of Registration. The duty of the *ex-officio* Stamp Commissioner is to administer the Stamp revenue, subject to the control of Government and to see that the Stamp Laws and Rules are not evaded. The Excise Divisional officers were appointed *ex-officio* Inspectors of Stamps, in the same order and they continued to be so until June 1923 when by their order No. Fl. 5440-42—St. 37-21-7, dated 1st June 1923, Government appointed District Judges as Inspectors of Stamps for inspecting their own courts and the courts subordinate to them and assigned this function in the case of the Chief Court to the Registrar of that court. Similarly Deputy Commissioners have been appointed Inspectors of Stamps in respect of their own affairs and Assistant Commissioners in charge of Revenue Sub-Divisions in respect of Criminal Courts and other offices situated within the limits of their respective Revenue Sub-Divisions. The Government have delegated the powers of the Chief Controlling Revenue Authority under the Stamp Regulation to the Commissioner of Stamps in August 1918. Under Notification No. R. 13541--St. 23-18-13, dated 2nd June 1921, all Assistant Commissioners in charge of Sub-Divisions, Personal Assistant to the Deputy Commissioner and District Treasury Officers are appointed Deputy Commissioners in respect of the powers conferred under sections 16, 18, 31, 32, 38, 40, 41, 42, 48, 49, 52, 56, 61 and 73 of the Mysore Stamp Regulation within the limits of their respective jurisdictions, all Amildars also being appointed as such in respect of the powers conferred under sections 16 and 18 (2) within the limits of their respective jurisdictions. The duties connected with the indenting for and the custody and supply of stamps are performed by the respective District Treasury Officers as *ex-officio* District Stamp Officers. The Commissioner of Stamps is entrusted with the supervision of the Stamp Manufactory and the

control over the Central, Local and Branch Depôts is also vested in him as the authority responsible for the provincial administration of the Stamp Revenue.

The stamp revenue steadily progressed year after year from the earlier years down to 1897-98 when the highest realization on record was reached. This progressive revenue received an abrupt check in the year 1898-99 bringing down the revenue suddenly from Rs. 8,26,308 to Rs. 6,45,946, a figure not to be seen in the list of stamp receipts since 1891-92. With the advent of the bubonic plague in the Mysore State in 1898-99, litigation and enterprise in the people received a check and the stamp revenue accordingly declined. But in 1900-01, however, the stamp revenue rose up to very nearly 8 lakhs; but in the following year, it again lost ground. In the year 1905-06, it once again showed improvement and reached the figure of Rs. 7,88,418 and since then, it grew rapidly year by year and reached Rs. 16,65,110 in 1919-20. Owing to the tightness of the money market and other unfavourable conditions (*vide* overleaf) the stamp revenue dropped to Rs. 16,16,030 in 1920-21. It has, however, risen to Rs. 16,75,061 in 1921-22, to Rs. 18,01,259 in 1922-23 and to Rs. 19,44,807 in 1923-24, owing to the enhancement of the rates of the duties payable under the Stamp and Court Fee Regulation.

Growth of
Revenue.

The following statement shows the receipts and expenditure of the Department from 1881-82 to 1923-24 :—

Receipt and
Expenditure
of the
Department.

Year	Receipts	Expenditure	Year	Receipts	Expenditure
1881-82 ...	4,95,831	14,083	1909-10 ...	8,16,633	66,039
1885-86 ...	4,80,479	15,524	1913-14 ...	10,66,358	57,406
1889-90 ...	5,92,847	21,197	1917-18 ...	12,83,769	82,984
1893-94 ...	7,06,031	26,997	1921-22 ...	16,75,061	84,967
1897-98 ...	8,26,308	83,633	1922-23 ...	18,01,259	1,08,532
1901-02 ...	7,50,403	59,765	1923-24 ...	19,44,807	1,60,303-3-0
1905-06 ...	7,88,418	52,306			

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- VII. The District Office Manual.
- VIII. The Sub-Division Office Manual.
- IX. The Taluk Manual.
- X. The Village Manual.
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 - (e) Col. Strachey's Memorandum dated 22nd February 1868 on certain points in the Mysore Revenue Survey (printed in the records connected with the tank system in Mysore).
 - (f) Notes of Proceedings of the Revenue and Irrigation Committees of 1868 and 1869 (printed respectively in the Revenue Manual and the records above cited).
 - (g) Bombay Acts I of 1865 and IV of 1868 as introduced into Mysore by Notification No. 83, dated 30th April 1869.
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CHAPTER III.

PROTECTION.

SECTION 1—LEGISLATION.

MYSORE being a Native State, the legislative enactments of the Government of India did not necessarily apply to it while under the British administration. When, therefore, the extension to Mysore of any legislative enactment of the Government of India or of the Governments of Madras, Bengal or Bombay was considered necessary, a special application was invariably made to the Governor-General in Council, who thereupon ordered the extension, by the issue of a notification, of the particular enactment to Mysore with such modifications as he considered necessary.

Legislative enactments passed prior to the Rendition, 1831-1881.

Two lists, one showing the Acts of the Government of India and the other, the Acts of the Madras Government extended to Mysore either in whole or in part up to 1880-1881, and not wholly repealed by subsequent legislation, are given at the end of this Section.

Acts of the Government of India and Local Government in force up to 1880-1881.

The State has full powers of legislation, subject to the provision that no laws or rules having the force of law which existed at the time of the Rendition shall be repealed or modified, or other laws or rules inconsistent therewith passed, and no material change in the system of administration in force in 1913 shall be made, without the consent of the Governor-General in Council. (*Vide* Articles 18 and 19 of the Mysore Treaty, which replace Articles 19 and 20 of the Instrument of Transfer).

Powers of the Mysore Government in regard to Legislation.

Organization
of the
Legislative
Department.

A Legislative Department was first organized in January 1886, as a separate department under the superintendence of an officer designated the "Legislative Secretary." Since February 1895, the department forms a branch of the General and Revenue Secretariat.

Origin and
powers of the
Mysore
Legislative
Council.

With a view to associate with the Government in the work of legislation, a certain number of official and non-official gentlemen qualified by practical experience and knowledge of local conditions and requirements, and to secure, to legislative measures, the benefit of discussion from different standpoints, the Mysore Legislative Council was established in June 1907, by Regulation I of that year, Section 15 of the Regulation however providing for the passing of Emergency Regulations in certain cases by His Highness the Maharaja and his Government independently of the Legislative Council. The Dewan was constituted the President with the State Councillors as *ex-officio* members and not less than 10 or more than 15 as additional members, to be nominated by Government and holding office for two years at a time, not less than two-fifths of the additional members being non-officials. Under a Notification dated 10th June 1908, two of the additional seats of the Council were thrown open for election by members of the Dasara Representative Assembly. The Council was empowered to make rules for the conduct of business and its work was confined to the consideration and passing of measures introduced at the meetings, the enactment of every measure resting with His Highness the Maharaja.

In 1914, the Mysore Legislative Council Regulation of 1907 was amended by Regulation I of 1914, and the number of additional members was increased to not less than 15 and not more than 21. Four seats instead of two were thrown open for election by the members of

the Representative Assembly and four seats for election by the 8 districts grouped into 4 electorates.

The privilege of discussing the budget and of interpellation was accorded to the Legislative Council in the year 1914. In 1915, powers were given to the members of the Legislative Council to ask supplementary questions, and in 1916, the total number of questions that could be asked at a single sitting was raised from 12 to 20.

During the year 1917, the rules for the discussion of the budget in the Legislative Council were revised, providing for the supply of the Draft Budget Estimates to each member as soon as possible after the 12th April every year, thus dispensing with the meeting for the presentation of the budget in the Council. When in 1918 a Finance Committee for discussing the Draft Budget was constituted, a non-official member of the Legislative Council, elected by the non-official members thereof, was allowed to be one of the members of that Committee. With a view to give the non-official members further opportunities for placing their views before Government, the privilege to move and discuss resolutions relating to matters of general administrative interest was decided to be conferred on the members in the same year, and the Mysore Legislative Council Regulation was amended accordingly by Regulation VI of 1919.

In 1919, the maximum number of the additional members of the Legislative Council was increased to 30 by Regulation XI of 1919. Eight seats instead of four were thrown open for election by District electorates, each District being allowed to return one member and one seat was kept open for election by the Fellows of the Mysore University.

In the same year, the Budget Finance Committee was reconstituted, one non-official member thereof being allowed to be elected by the non-official members and another being nominated from the same body.

The Economic Conference was also reorganised during the same year and two members of the General Economic Conference were allowed to be elected by the members of the Legislative Council.

Reformed
constitution
of 1923.

With a view to associate the people more largely with the business of Government, the outlines of a scheme of constitutional developments were announced in October 1922. A Committee of officials and non-officials was appointed to work out the details required to give effect to this scheme and orders were passed on the recommendations of the Committee in October 1923. As a result of these steps, the strength of the Legislative Council was increased to 50. Not less than 60 per cent of this number are required to be non-official members and the remainder, official members nominated by Government. Not less than two-thirds of the non-official members should be elected by the Mysore Representative Assembly and by the urban constituencies of the Bangalore City Municipality and the Mysore City Municipality, the rural constituencies of each of the eight districts and non-territorial constituencies consisting of the Special Interests—Mysore University, Commerce and Trade, Planting and Labour.

The position and powers of the Legislative Council in respect of legislation have not been materially altered except that the constitution, powers and functions of the Legislative Council and of the Representative Assembly will be outside the cognizance of the Legislative Council.

As regards the subjects excluded from the purview of the Legislative Council, the list has been further curtailed, the excluded subjects under the altered constitution being those relating to—

- (1) the Ruling Family of Mysore ;
- (2) the relations of His Highness the Maharaja with the Paramount Power or with Foreign Princes or States ;

(3) matters governed by treaties or conventions or agreements, now in force or hereafter to be made by His Highness the Maharaja with the Paramount Power ;

(4) the provisions of the Legislative Council Regulation ;

(5) the provisions of the Representative Assembly Regulation ; and

(6) such other matters as may, from time to time, be specially reserved by His Highness the Maharaja for consideration by the Government.

Power has been given to the Legislative Council to vote on the annual State Budget by major heads in respect of all items of expenditure except the following heads :—

(i) the Palace including the staff and household of His Highness the Maharaja ;

(ii) the Military Forces of His Highness the Maharaja ;

(iii) the pensions of public servants ;

(iv) expenditure on—

(a) matters pertaining to or affecting the relations of His Highness the Maharaja with the Paramount Power or with other States ; and

(b) matters governed by treaties or conventions or agreements now in force or hereafter to be made by His Highness the Maharaja with the Paramount Power ;

(v) interest on loans and charges on account of sinking funds guaranteed at the time of raising the loans ;

(vi) expenditure of which the amount is prescribed by or under any law.

Power is, however, reserved to Government to restore any demand which has not been assented to or which has been reduced by the Council if the Government considers that the expenditure is necessary for the carrying on of any department or for the discharge of Government's responsibility. Government have also power in cases of emergency to authorise such expenditure as may, in their opinion, be necessary for the safety or tranquility of the State or any part thereof or for the discharge of Government's responsibility.

In regard to the power to move resolutions on matters of general public interest, every member can bring not more than one resolution, but the maximum limit of 12 resolutions for a session has been removed.

With regard to interpellations, every member may put not more than two questions, there being no restriction as to the total number of interpellations that may be put at a single meeting. (For further information on this head, see Volume IV, *Administrative*, Chapter I).

Revision of
Acts passed
prior to the
Rendition.

On the Rendition, the change of Government rendered it necessary to revise the Acts already in force in Mysore in order to make them applicable to the altered state of affairs. Three notifications in regard to the interpretation of the Acts are given on page 3 of Volume I, Mysore Code. A schedule of the Acts in force at the time of Rendition was appended to the Mysore Treaty of 1913.

Mysore Code.

The various Regulations passed into law up to 1912 have been revised and published in five volumes forming the Mysore Codes, and those passed from 1912 to the end of 1919 have been compiled and published as the sixth volume.

Statistical
Tables.

The list of Regulations passed since 1881 is given at the end of this Section.

Rules and
Notifications
under
enactments
in force.

Revised rules and regulations have been issued from time to time in connection with enactments in force. During the year 1922-1923, revised rules were issued for the manufacture, possession, import, export and sale of medicinal opium, morphine and like preparations. The transport, import or possession of drugs used for certain purposes was exempted from the operation of the Opium Act and the Excise Regulation. Agricultural Inspectors

in charge of the Government sheep farms at Yellachahalli and Hebbal were exempted from the prohibitions contained in Sections 8 and 9 of the Arms Regulation, save in respect of cannons, etc. Under the Excise Regulation, certain powers were delegated to the several officers of the Excise Department and the Excise Commissioner was empowered to hear appeals against the orders of the Deputy Commissioners, the power of review being reserved to Government. The foreign liquor rules were amended in respect of the inclusion of brands bottled in India and rules for regulating the bottling of portable foreign liquors for sale were prescribed. The killing or capture of birds of bright plumage, of pea-fowl and of antelope was prohibited under the Game and Fish Preservation Regulation for the period till 30th June 1927. Under the Registration Regulation, revised rates of fees were prescribed and revised rules for searches and grant of copies were also issued. In exercise of the powers under the Code of Criminal Procedure, the system of trial by jury was extended to the Districts of Tumkur and Kadur. The operation of the Juvenile Smoking Prevention Regulation was extended to all municipal towns in the Kolar District.

ACTS INTRODUCED BEFORE THE RENDITION.

Number and year	Title or short title	Remarks
XX of 1847 ...	Copyright Act ...	Repealed in part by Acts XVII of 1862, IX of 1871 and I of 1879.
XIX of 1850 ... (in parts.)	An act concerning the binding of Apprentices (applies only to Europeans and Eurasians).	Repealed in part by Acts XIV of 1870 and XVI of 1874.
XIII of 1859 ...	The Breach of Contract Act.
XLV of 1860 ...	The Indian Penal Code ...	Amended by Acts XXVII of 1870, XIX of 1872, X of 1873 and Regulations I of 1886, I of 1892, II and IV of 1894 and I of 1904.
X of 1865 ...	The Indian Succession Act (does not apply to Indian Christians).	Repealed in part by Acts XXIV of 1866, VII of 1870 and XV of 1877.
V of 1866 ...	An Act to amend in certain respects the commercial law of British India.	Repealed in part by Acts IX of 1872 and X of 1877 as amended by Act XII of 1879.
XXI of 1866 ...	The Indian Converts' Marriage Dissolution Act.	Repealed in part by Acts VII of 1870 and XVI of 1874.
XXV of 1867 ...	An Act for the Regulation of Printing Presses and Newspapers, for the preservation of copies of books printed in the territories of Mysore and for the registration of such books.	Amended by Regulation I of 1894.
XXVI of 1870 ...	The Prisons Act (in part) ...	Repealed in part before extension to Mysore by Acts XII of 1873 and XVI of 1874, and amended by XIV of 1878.
XXVII of 1870 ...	The Indian Penal Code Amendment.	Repealed in part by Act X of 1872.
I of 1871 ...	The Cattle Trespass Act ...	Amended by Regulation VIII of 1892.
XXIII of 1871 ...	The Pensions Act (in part)
I of 1872 ...	The Indian Evidence Act ...	Amended by Act XVIII of 1872 and Regulations X of 1900, VIII of 1901, III of 1912 and X of 1918 and repealed in part by Regulation III of 1899.
IX of 1872 ...	The Indian Contract Act ...	Repealed in part by Act I of 1877 and amended by Regulations VI of 1892 and IV of 1912.
XV of 1872 ...	The Indian Christian Marriage Act (in part) ...	Repealed in part by Regulation III of 1900.

ACTS INTRODUCED BEFORE THE RENDITION—*contd.*

Number and year	Title or short title	Remarks
XVIII of 1872 ...	The Indian Evidence Act Amendment Act.	Repealed in part by Act X of 1873.
XIX of 1872 ...	The Indian Penal Code (1860) Amendment.
V of 1873 ...	The Government Savings Banks Act.	Amended by Regulation II of 1911.
X of 1873 ...	The Indian Oaths Act ..	Repealed in part before extension to Mysore by Acts XII of 1873 and XII of 1876.
I of 1877 ...	The Specific Relief Act (in part).
I of 1878 ...	The Opium Act
MADRAS ACTS.		
I of 1873 ...	An Act to prevent indiscriminate destruction of wild elephants.
VIII of 1878 ...	The Madras Coffee Stealing Prevention Act.
I of 1883 ...	The Mysore Civil Courts Regulation.	Amended by Regulations V of 1892, VI of 1894, II of 1898, III of 1901, VIII of 1911 and IX of 1915.
I of 1884 ...	The Mysore Chief Court Regulation.	Amended by Regulations II of 1890, IV of 1903, II of 1905, III of 1909 and III of 1911.
III of 1884 ...	The Mysore Legal Practitioners Regulation.	Amended by Regulations I of 1897 and XII of 1919.
I of 1885 ...	The Yelandur Jahgir Regulation.
II of 1885 ...	A Regulation applying to Mysore Act XVI of 1863 (Excise duty on spirits, used exclusively in Arts and Manufactures or in Chemistry).
II of 1888 ...	The Mysore Explosives Regulation.
IV of 1888 ...	The Mysore Land Revenue Code.	Amended by Regulations I of 1891, III of 1892, VI of 1905, VI of 1906, I of 1909, V of 1912, II of 1916, VIII of 1916 and I of 1919.
II of 1890 ...	A Regulation to amend the Mysore Chief Court Regulation, 1884.	Amended in part by Regulation III of 1911.
III of 1890 ...	The Measures of Length Regulation.
IV of 1890 ...	The Land Improvement Loans Regulation.	Amended by Regulations V of 1899, I of 1901 and repealed in part by Regulation I of 1903.

ACTS INTRODUCED BEFORE THE RENDITION—*contd.*

Number and year	Title or short title	Remarks
VI of 1890 ...	The Mysore Arms Regulation.
I of 1891 ...	A Regulation to amend the Mysore Land Revenue Code.
I of 1892 ...	The Mysore Merchandise Marks Regulation.	Amended by Regulation V of 1905.
II of 1892 ...	A Regulation to provide for compensation for death caused by actionable wrong.
III of 1892 ...	A Regulation further to amend the Mysore Land Revenue Code, 1888.
IV of 1892 ...	The Mysore Factories Regulation.
V of 1892 ...	The Mysore Civil Courts Regulation (1883) Amendment Regulation.
VI of 1892 ...	A Regulation to amend the Indian Contract Act (1872).
VIII of 1892 ...	A Regulation to amend the Cattle Trespass Act (1871).
I of 1893 ...	A Regulation for avoiding loss by Default of Public Accountants.	Amended by Regulation XII of 1918.
I of 1894 ...	A Regulation to amend the Printing Presses and Newspapers Act (1867).
II of 1894 ...	A Regulation to amend the Indian Penal Code (1860).
IV of 1894 ...	The Mysore Railways Regulation.
V of 1894 ...	The Mysore Prisoners Testimony Regulation.
VI of 1894 ...	A Regulation further to amend the Mysore Civil Courts Regulation (1883).
VII of 1894 ...	The Mysore Land Acquisition Regulation.	Amended by Regulation XI of 1916.
IX of 1894 ...	The Government Securities Regulation.
X of 1894 ...	The Mysore Infant Marriages Prevention Regulation.
XI of 1894 ...	The Mysore Inventions and Designs Regulation.	Repealed in part by Regulation II of 1900.
I of 1895 ...	The Prevention of Cruelty to Animals Regulation.
III of 1895 ...	The Mysore Companies Regulation.	Repealed in part by Regulation II of 1900 and wholly by Regulation VIII of 1917.
II of 1896 ...	The Mysore Cotton Duties Regulation.
I of 1897 ...	A Regulation to amend the Mysore Legal Practitioners Regulation (1884).
II of 1897 ...	The Epidemic Diseases Regulation.

ACTS INTRODUCED BEFORE THE RENDITION—*contd.*

Number and year	Title or short title	Remarks
IV of 1897 ...	The Sringeri Jagir Inam Settlement Regulation.
I of 1898 ...	The Mysore Village Sanitation Regulation.
II of 1898 ...	A Regulation further to amend the Mysore Civil Courts Regulation I of 1883.	Amended by Regulation III of 1901.
I of 1899 ...	A Regulation to assimilate the Law relating to Post Offices in Mysore to that which is from time to time in force in British India.
II of 1899 ...	The Mysore Military Regulation.	Amended by Regulation V of 1900, IV of 1901, I of 1905, IV of 1905, II of 1907, II of 1910, II of 1913, II of 1914, VIII of 1918 and I of 1920.
III of 1899 ...	The General Clauses Regulation.
IV of 1899 ...	A Regulation to apply the provisions of the Indian Telegraph Act, 1888, to all telegraph lines in Mysore.
V of 1899 ...	The Land Improvement Loans Regulation (1890) Amendment Regulation.
VI of 1899 ...	A Regulation to provide and regulate the destruction and segregation of stray dogs and of deceased horses and cattle.
II of 1900 ...	The Mysore Stamp Regulation.	Amended by Regulation II of 1908 and IV of 1916.
III of 1900 ...	The Mysore Court Fees Regulation.	Amended by Regulations VII of 1901, I of 1908, II of 1912 and IV of 1914, amended and repealed in part by III of 1911 and repealed in part by V of 1911.
IV of 1900 ...	The Mysore Electricity Regulation.
V of 1900 ...	A Regulation to amend the Mysore Military Regulation (1899).
VII of 1900 ...	The Coinage Regulation
X of 1900 ...	A Regulation to further amend the Indian Evidence Act (1872).	Amended by Regulation VIII of 1901.
XI of 1900 ...	The Mysore Forest Regulation.	Amended by Regulation IX of 1901.
I of 1901 ..	A Regulation to amend the Land Improvement Loans Regulation (1890).
II of 1901 ...	The Mysore Game and Fish Preservation Regulation.

ACTS INTRODUCED BEFORE THE RENDITION—*contd.*

Number and year	Title or short title	Remarks
III of 1901 ...	A Regulation to further amend the Mysore Civil Courts Regulation (1883).
IV of 1901 ...	A Regulation to further amend the Mysore Military Regulation (1899).
V of 1901 ...	The Mysore Excise Regulation.	Amended by Regulations IV of 1902, V of 1904, V of 1906 and VIII of 1913.
VII of 1901 ...	The Succession Certificate Regulation.
VIII of 1901 ...	A Regulation to further amend the Indian Evidence Act (1872).
IX of 1901 ...	A Regulation to amend the Mysore Forest Regulation (1900).
I of 1902 ...	A Regulation for safeguarding the Cauvery Electric Power Transmission Line.
II of 1902 ...	The Mysore Local Boards Regulation.	Amended by Regulation X of 1911.
III of 1902 ...	The Mysore Weights and Measures Regulation.
IV of 1902 ...	A Regulation to amend the Mysore Excise Regulation (1901).
V of 1902 ...	The Bankers' Books Evidence Regulation.
I of 1903 ...	The Mysore Registration Regulation.	Amended by Regulations VI of 1908 and IV of 1918.
II of 1903 ...	A Regulation to provide for the recovery of loans made to Agricultural Banks.
III of 1903 ...	The City of Mysore Improvement Regulation.	Amended by Regulations IV of 1904 and II of 1909.
IV of 1903 ...	A Regulation to further amend the Mysore Chief Court Regulation (1884).
V of 1903 ...	The Mysore Whipping Regulation.
I of 1904 ...	A Regulation to amend the Indian Penal Code, 1860, as it is in force in Mysore.
II of 1904 ...	The Code of Criminal Procedure.	Amended by Regulations IV of 1915 and I of 1916.
III of 1904 ...	The Societies Registration Regulation.
IV of 1904 ...	A Regulation to amend the City of Mysore Improvement Regulation (1903).
V of 1904 ...	The Mysore Excise Regulation (1901) Amendment Regulation.

ACTS INTRODUCED BEFORE THE RENDITION--*contd.*

Number and year	Title or short title	Remarks
I of 1905 ...	A Regulation to amend the Mysore Military Regulation, 1899.
II of 1905 ...	A Regulation further to amend the Mysore Chief Court Regulation, 1884.
III of 1905 ...	The Mysore Co-operative Societies Regulation.	Repealed by Regulation VII of 1918.
IV of 1905 ...	A Regulation further to amend the Mysore Military Regulation, 1899.
V of 1905 ...	A Regulation to amend the Mysore Merchandise Marks Regulation (1892).
VI of 1905 ...	A Regulation further to amend the Mysore Land Revenue Code (1888).
I of 1906 ...	The Mysore Vaccination Regulation.
II of 1906 ...	The Mysore Tramways Regulation.	Amended by Regulation X of 1916.
IV of 1906 ...	The Mysore Mines Regulation.	Amended by Regulations IX of 1914 and VII of 1915.
V of 1906 ...	The Mysore Excise Regulation (1901) Amendment Regulation.
VI of 1906 ...	A Regulation further to amend the Mysore Land Revenue Code (1888).
VII of 1906 ...	The Mysore Municipal Regulation.	Amended by Regulations IX of 1911, VIII of 1914, VIII of 1916, III of 1916 and V of 1918.
I of 1907 ...	The Mysore Legislative Council Regulation.
II of 1907 ...	A Regulation further to amend the Mysore Military Regulation, II of 1899.	Amended by Regulations I of 1914, IX of 1917, IX of 1918 and XI of 1919.
I of 1908 ...	A Regulation to amend the Mysore Court Fees Regulation, III of 1900.
II of 1908 ...	A Regulation to amend the Mysore Stamp Regulation, II of 1900.
III of 1908 ...	The Mysore Newspapers Regulation.
IV of 1908 ...	The Mysore Village Officers Regulation.
V of 1908 ...	The Mysore Police Regulation.
VI of 1908 ...	A Regulation to amend the Mysore Registration Regulation, I of 1903.
I of 1909 ...	A Regulation further to amend the Mysore Land Revenue Code, IV of 1888.

ACTS INTRODUCED BEFORE THE RENDITION—*contd.*

Number and year	Title or short title	Remarks
II of 1909 ...	A Regulation further to amend the City of Mysore Improvement Regulation, III of 1903.
III of 1909 ...	A Regulation further to amend the Mysore Chief Court Regulation, I of 1884.
II of 1910 ...	A Regulation further to amend the Mysore Military Regulation, II of 1899.
III of 1910 ...	The Mysore Treasure Trove Regulation.
IV of 1910 ...	A Regulation to recognise the representative character of the Administrator-General of Madras.
V of 1910 ...	The Mysore Prisons Regulation.
I of 1911 ...	The Tank Panchayet Regulation.	Amended by Regulations XII of 1916 and III of 1919.
II of 1911 ...	A Regulation to amend the Government Savings Banks Act, 1873.
III of 1911 ...	The Code of Civil Procedure.	Repealed in part by Regulations I of 1912 and I of 1915.
IV of 1911 ...	The Mysore Limitation Regulation.	Amended by Regulations V of 1912 and VI of 1914.
V of 1911 ...	The Guardians and Wards Regulation.
VI of 1911 ...	The Mysore Insolvency Regulation.
VII of 1911 ...	The Mysore Public Conveyances Regulation.
VIII of 1911 ...	The Mysore Small Cause Courts Regulation.
IX of 1911 ...	A Regulation to amend the Mysore Municipal Regulation, 1906.
X of 1911 ...	A Regulation to amend the Mysore Local Boards Regulation, 1902.
XI of 1911 ...	The Prevention of Juvenile Smoking Regulation.
I of 1912 ...	A Regulation for the protection of Judicial Officers.
II of 1912 ...	A Regulation further to amend the Mysore Court Fees Regulation, 1900.
III of 1912 ...	A Regulation to amend the Indian Evidence Act as in force in Mysore.
IV of 1912 ...	The Indian Contract Act Amendment Regulation, 1912.

ACTS INTRODUCED BEFORE THE RENDITION—*contd.*

Number and year	Title or short title	Remarks
V of 1912 ...	A Regulation to amend the Mysore Land Revenue Code Regulation No. IV of 1888.
I of 1913 ...	The Mysore Emigration Regulation.
II of 1913 ...	A Regulation further to amend the Mysore Military Regulation, 1899.
III of 1913 ...	A Regulation to amend the law relating to Partition in Mysore.
IV of 1913 ...	The Mysore Motor Vehicles Regulation.
V of 1913 ...	The Elementary Education Regulation.
VI of 1913 ...	The Mysore Muzrai Regulation.
VII of 1913 ...	The Mysore Village Courts Regulation.	Amended by Regulation III of 1917.
VIII of 1913 ...	A Regulation to further amend the Mysore Excise Regulation, 1901.	
I of 1914 ...	A Regulation to amend the Mysore Legislative Council Regulation, 1907.
II of 1914 ...	A Regulation further to amend the Mysore Military Regulation, II of 1899.
III of 1914 ...	The Mysore Factories Regulation.
IV of 1914 ...	A Regulation further to amend the Mysore Court Fees Regulation, 1900.
V of 1914 ...	A Regulation to further amend the Mysore Local Boards Regulation, II of 1902.	Repealed by Regulation VI of 1918.
VI of 1914 ...	The Probate and Administration Regulation.	
VII of 1914 ...	The Mysore Naval and Military News (Emergency) Regulation.
VIII of 1914 ...	A Regulation to further amend the Mysore Municipal Regulation, 1906.
IX of 1914 ...	A Regulation to amend the Mysore Mines Regulation, 1906.
X of 1914 ...	The Foreigners (Emergency) Regulation.
XI of 1914 ...	The Ingress into Mysore (Emergency) Regulation.
XII of 1914 ...	The Commercial Intercourse with Enemies (Emergency) Regulation.	Amended by Regulation II of 1918.
I of 1915 ...	A Regulation further to amend the Code of Civil Procedure, 1911.	

ACTS INTRODUCED BEFORE THE RENDITION—*contd.*

Number and year	Title or short title	Remarks
II of 1915 ...	The Emergency Registration Continuance Regulation.
III of 1915 ...	The Regulation further to amend the Mysore Local Boards Regulation, 1902.	Repealed by Regulation VI of 1918.
IV of 1915 ..	The Regulation to amend the Code of Criminal Procedure, 1904.
V of 1915 ...	The Indian Soldiers Litigation (Emergency) Regulation.	Repealed by Regulation VI of 1915.
VI of 1915 ...	The Indian Soldiers' Litigation Regulation.
VII of 1915 ...	A Regulation further to amend the Mysore Mines Regulation, 1906.
VIII of 1915 ...	A Regulation further to amend the Mysore Municipal Regulation, 1906.
IX of 1915 ...	A Regulation further to amend the Mysore Civil Courts Regulation, 1883.
I of 1916 ...	The Mysore Lunacy Regulation.
II of 1916 ...	A Regulation further to amend the Mysore Land Revenue Code, 1888.
III of 1916 ...	A Regulation further to amend the Mysore Municipal Regulation, 1906.
IV of 1916 ...	A Regulation further to amend the Mysore Stamp Regulation, 1900.
V of 1916 ...	The Mysore University Regulation.	Amended by Regulation II of 1919.
VI of 1916 ...	The Enemy Trading (Emergency) Regulation.	Repealed by Regulation II of 1917.
VII of 1916 ...	The Criminal Tribes Regulation.
VIII of 1916 ...	A Regulation further to amend the Mysore Land Revenue Code, 1888.
IX of 1916 ...	The Provident Funds Regulation.
X of 1916 ...	A Regulation to amend the Mysore Tramways Regulation, 1906.
XI of 1916 ...	A Regulation to amend the Mysore Land Acquisition Regulation, 1894.
XII of 1916 ...	A Regulation to amend the Tank Panchayet Regulation, 1911.
XIII of 1916 ...	The Minor Tank Restoration Regulation.
I of 1917 ...	The Mysore Arbitration Regulation.
II of 1917 ...	The Enemy Trading Regulation.

ACTS INTRODUCED BEFORE THE RENDITION—*contd.*

Number and year	Title or short title	Remarks
III of 1917 ...	A Regulation to amend the Village Courts Regulation, 1913.
IV of 1917 ...	The Mysore State Life Insurance Regulation.
V of 1917 ...	The Defence of India (Emergency) Regulation.	Repealed by Regulation I of 1918.
VI of 1917 ...	The Destructive Insects and Pests Regulation.
VII of 1917 ...	The Negotiable Instruments Regulation.
VIII of 1917 ...	The Mysore Companies Regulation.
IX of 1917 ...	The Regulation further to amend the Mysore Legislative Council Regulation, 1907.
I of 1918 ...	The Defence of India Regulation.
II of 1918 ...	A Regulation to amend the Commercial Intercourse with Enemies (Emergency) Regulation, 1914.
III of 1918 ...	The Mysore Registration of Births & Deaths Regulation.
IV of 1918 ...	The Transfer of Property Regulation
V of 1918 ...	A Regulation further to amend the Mysore Municipal Regulation, 1906.
VI of 1918 ...	The Mysore Local Boards and Village Panchayets Regulation.
VII of 1918 ...	The Mysore Co-operative Societies Regulation.
VIII of 1918 ...	A Regulation further to amend the Mysore Military Regulation, 1899.
IX of 1918 ...	A Regulation to extend the period of the present additional members of the Mysore Legislative Council.
X of 1918 ...	A Regulation further to amend the Indian Evidence Act, 1872.
XI of 1918 ...	The Mysore Paper Currency (Emergency) Regulation.
XII of 1918 ...	Regulation to amend the Regulation for avoiding loss by the default of Public Accountants.
I of 1919 ...	Regulation further to amend the Land Revenue Code, 1888.
II of 1919 ...	Regulation to amend the Mysore University Regulation, 1916.
III of 1919 ...	Regulation further to amend the Tank Panchayet Regulation, 1911.

ACTS INTRODUCED BEFORE THE RENDITION—*contd.*

Number and year	Title or short title	Remarks
IV of 1919 ..	Regulation to define and amend the Law relating to Easements and Licenses.	
V of 1919 ..	The Mysore Paper Currency Regulation.	
VI of 1919 ..	Regulation to amend the Mysore Legislative Council Regulation, 1907.	
VII of 1919 ..	Regulation further to amend the Mysore Land Revenue Code, 1888.	
VIII of 1919 ..	Regulation to amend the Village Offices Regulation, 1908.	
IX of 1919 ..	The Termination of the present war (Definition) Regulation.	
X of 1919 ..	Regulation to amend the Mysore Railways Regulation 1894.	
XI of 1919 ..	Regulation further to amend the Mysore Legislative Council Regulation, 1907.	
XII of 1919 ..	Regulation further to amend the Mysore Legal Practitioner's Regulation, 1884.	
I of 1920 ..	Regulation further to amend the Mysore Military Regulation, 1899.	
II of 1920 ..	The Mysore Census Regulation.	
III of 1920 ..	The Mysore Steam Boilers and Prime Movers Regulation	
IV of 1920 ..	The Mysore Highway Regulation.	
V of 1920 ..	Regulation further to amend the Mysore Excise Regulation, 1901.	
VI of 1920 ...	Income Tax Regulation.	
VII of 1920 ...	Regulation further to amend the Mysore Forest Regulation, 1900.	
VIII of 1920 ..	Regulation further to amend the Mysore Land Revenue Code, 1888.	
IX of 1920 ...	Regulation further to amend the Mysore Village Courts Regulation, 1918.	
I of 1921 ...	Regulation further to amend the Mysore Municipal Regulation, 1906.	
II of 1921 ...	Regulation to amend the Negotiable Instruments Regulation, 1907.	
III of 1921 ...	Regulation to amend the Mysore Local Boards and Village Panchayats Regulation, 1918.	

ACTS INTRODUCED BEFORE THE RENDITION—*contd.*

Number and year	Title or short title	Remarks
IV of 1921 ...	Regulation to amend the Mysore State Life Insurance Regulation, 1917.
V of 1921 ...	Regulation to amend the Mysore Police Regulation.
VI of 1921 ...	Regulation to amend the Mysore Police Regulation.
VII of 1921 ...	Regulation further to amend the Mysore Registration Regulation.
VIII of 1921 ...	Freight (Railway) Tax (Emergency) Regulation.
IX of 1921 ...	The Mysore Prevention of Adulteration Regulation.
I of 1922 ...	Regulation to amend the Indian Succession Act, 1865.
II of 1922 ...	Regulation further to amend the Indian Penal Code, 1860.
III of 1922 ...	Regulation further to amend the Registration Regulation, 1908.
IV of 1922 ...	Regulation further to amend the Negotiable Instruments Regulation, 1917.
V of 1922 ...	Regulation further to amend the Mysore Municipal Regulation, 1906.
VI of 1922 ..	The Identification of Prisoners Regulation.
VII of 1922 ..	Regulation further to amend the Mysore Stamp Regulation, 1900.
VIII of 1922 ..	Regulation further to amend the Mysore Court Fees Regulation, 1900.
I of 1923 ...	The Mysore Petroleum Regulation.
II of 1923 ...	Regulation to extend the period of the present members of the Legislative Council.
III of 1923 ...	Regulation further to amend the Mysore Excise Regulation, 1901.
IV of 1923 ...	Regulation further to amend the Mysore Municipal Regulation.
V of 1923 ...	Income-Tax Regulation
VI of 1923 ...	Regulation further to amend the Village Courts Regulation.
VII of 1923 ...	Regulation to provide for suits against Government.
VIII of 1923 ...	Regulation to amend Code of Civil Procedure.
IX of 1923 ...	The Mysore Usurious Loans Regulation.

ACTS INTRODUCED BEFORE THE RENDITION--*concl'd.*

Number and year	Title or short title	Remarks
X of 1923 ...	A Regulation further to amend the Negotiable Instruments Regulation, 1917.
XI of 1923 ...	A Regulation to amend the Breach of Contract Act, XII of 1859.
XII of 1923 ...	A Regulation to make provision for regulating the exhibitions by means of Cinematographs.
XIII of 1923 ...	A Regulation further to amend the Mysore Land Revenue Code, 1888.
XIV of 1923 ...	A Regulation further to amend the Mysore University Regulation, 1916.
XV of 1923 ...	Minor Tank Restoration (Amendment) Regulation, 1916.
XVI of 1923 ...	A Regulation to amend the Companies Regulation.
XVII of 1923 ...	Regulation further to amend the Court Fees Regulation.
XVIII of 1923 ...	Representative Assembly Regulation.
XIX of 1923 ...	Legislative Council Regulation.
I of 1924 ...	Regulation further to amend the Court Fees Regulation, 1900.
I of 1925 ...	Regulation to amend the Mysore University Regulation, 1916.
II of 1925 ...	Regulation to amend the Motor Vehicles Regulation, 1913.
III of 1925 ...	The Mysore Patents and Designs Regulation, 1925.
IV of 1925 ...	The Lepers Regulation, 1925.
V of 1925 ...	Regulation further to amend the Indian Penal Code as in force in Mysore.
VI of 1925 ...	Regulation to amend the Mysore Factories Regulation, 1914.
VII of 1925 ...	Regulation to amend the Mysore Vaccination Regulation, 1906.
VIII of 1925 ...	The Government Securities Regulation, 1925.
IX of 1925 ...	The Ancient Monuments Preservation Regulation, 1925.
X of 1925 ...	Regulation to amend the Mysore Criminal Tribes Regulation, 1916.

SECTION 2.—(i) CIVIL JUSTICE.

Non-Regulation Period (1831-1855).

When the Governor-General of India resolved that the territories of His Highness the Rāja of Mysore should be governed until further orders by a sole Commissioner and four European Superintendents, the system and establishments for the administration of Justice, Civil as well as Criminal, which then existed was considered inadequate to the wants of the country and an order for the establishment of Courts of Justice, with a draft of rules for their guidance, was issued on 27th October 1834. These rules relating to Civil Justice are contained in paras 3 to 96 of the *Memorandum on the system of Judicature* contained in the General Memorandum on Mysore, a few important features of which are given below.

Establishment of the Courts of Justice.

The Courts of original jurisdiction were :—

Civil Courts.

- (1) The Amils' Courts, and
- (2) The Town Munsiffs' Courts.

Courts of original jurisdiction and of appeal were :—

- (1) The Principal Sadar Munsiff's Court, and
- (2) The Courts of European Superintendents.

The Huzur Adalat and the Commissioner's Courts were only Courts of appeal.

The Panchāyet system was widely recognized. A list of as large a number as possible of the most respectable and intelligent inhabitants competent to perform the duties of the Panchāyetdārs was kept in the court of every Superintendent, Munsiff and Amil. When the preliminary papers had been filed in a suit, from the recorded list of Panchāyetdars, five persons next in rotation were (if a panchāyet was necessary) nominated by the Court. Every Panchāyet sat in open Court and had all facilities

Panchāyets.

for following the proceedings. Except in cases of glaring injustice, gross partiality or corruption, it was not deemed advisable to set aside the opinion of the majority of a panchāyet: nor in any instance was the opinion of the minority allowed to form the basis of a decree. A new trial could be ordered, but only under extraordinary circumstances. The rules regulating the constitution and working of Panchāyets will be found at paras 72 to 75 of the Memorandum above referred to.

The Amildars. The Amildars had power to decide, without record, all claims not exceeding Rs. 20, with a record of proceedings, suits not in excess of Rs. 100 and, when assisted by a panchāyet, all suits not exceeding Rs. 500.

The Town Munsiff. The Mysore Town Munsiff had nearly identical power with that of an Amil in all suits regarding real or personal property, which was connected with, or may have originated within the limits of, the town of Mysore. The Bangalore Town Munsiff, in addition to the powers of an Amildar, had authority to decide, with a record of proceedings, all suits for real property not exceeding Rs. 500 and for personal property not exceeding Rs. 1,000.

The Principal Sadar Munsiffs. The Principal Sadar Munsiffs, of whom there were two in each Division, decided all original suits for real property above Rs. 100 and not exceeding Rs. 1,000 and for personal property, above Rs. 100 and not exceeding Rs. 5,000. They also decided all suits in appeal from the Amils, their decision in all such appeals being final, unless in cases of landed property, or under circumstances of corruption or gross partiality. The Sadar Munsiffs had authority to try all cases referred to them by the Superintendents of their respective Divisions.

All original suits involving real property in value above Rs. 1,000 or personal property above Rs. 5,000 were decided by the Superintendents who had also authority to investigate all appeals whatsoever from the lower courts of their Divisions. Under the Commissioner's special instructions, the Superintendents exercised control over the Munsiffs and all subordinate judicial authorities within the limits of their Divisions.

Superintendents.

The Huzur Adalat was a court attached to the Commissioner's Office and had three Indian Judges on it. It had power to take cognizance of, and to pass a decision upon, all appeals from the Subordinate native courts. This court was not assisted by a panchāyet unless specially ordered by the Commissioner to convene one, but the Judges might be assembled by the Commissioner and employed by him as his assessors whenever he deemed such a course advisable. This court was not one of original jurisdiction, excepting when suits were specially referred to it for investigation by the Commissioner.

The Huzur Adalat.

The Commissioner received appeals from the decisions of the Superintendents and of the Huzur Adalat either in appeal direct, or by simple petition through the *Firiad* Department of his office. No original suits were filed in the Commissioner's Court; it was, however, optional with him to take notice, in any way he deemed fit, of any representation whatever which was laid before him.

The Commissioner.

Transition Period (1856-1862).

In 1856, a Judicial Commissioner was appointed to afford relief to the Commissioner. As a result of the re-organization of the Commission in the year 1862-63, the subordinates of the Superintendents of Divisions were styled "Deputy Superintendents" and these were empowered to adjudicate civil suits of unlimited value,

Re-organization and its effects.

appeals lying to the Courts of the Superintendents. In the Judicial Department, not only were the number, constitution and jurisdiction of the courts altered, the traditionary practice by which their operations were in a great measure regulated was abrogated or materially affected by the introduction of the Codes, and the new system necessitated an immediate and complete change in all judicial forms and returns.

Under the revised constitution of the Mysore Administration, the following officers held courts, either of original or appellate jurisdiction in civil and also criminal matters (except the judges of the Small Cause Court), the Huzur Adalat and the Munsiffs' Courts being abolished :—

- 1 Judicial Commissioner,
- 3 Superintendents of Divisions,
- 8 Deputy Superintendents of Districts,
- 2 Judges of the Small Cause Court,
- 9 European Assistant Superintendents,
- 15 Indian Assistant Superintendents, and
- 86 Amildars of Taluks.

Regulation Period, (1863-1881).

Civil Courts
in 1876.

In the year 1869, revised rules of Civil Procedure were introduced and the Assistant Superintendents were relieved generally of Civil work, one "Judicial Assistant" being appointed for that special duty. In 1874-75, Amildars were relieved of Civil Jurisdiction and Munsiffs were appointed. The classes of Civil Courts as existing in 1876 were as follows :—

- 22 Munsiffs,
- 8 Judicial Assistants,
- 1 Small Cause Court,
- 8 Deputy Commissioners,
- 3 Commissioners, and
- 1 Judicial Commissioner.

The Civil powers of Deputy Commissioners were gradually curtailed and in 1879, the Deputy Commissioners ceased to have any Civil jurisdiction and in their place, the courts of the District Judges were formed and they had unlimited original pecuniary jurisdiction and heard appeals from Sub-Judges, who took the place of Judicial Assistants.

Civil Justice, 1881-1924.

On the last day of the year 1880, there were the following classes of Civil Courts :—

Courts prior
to the
Rendition.

Court of the Chief Judge of Mysore	...	1
Courts of the District Judges	...	3
Bangalore Court of Small Causes	...	1
Subordinate Judges' Courts	...	8
Munsiffs' Courts	...	22

Of the above, the Court of Small Causes at Bangalore was abolished in 1881. Since then, certain courts were either established or abolished in the interests of public service and the existing classes of Civil Courts are as follows :—

Courts
subsequent to
the Rendition.

Chief Court of Mysore consisting of 3 Judges.	1
District Judges' Courts	3
Sub-Judges' Courts	3
Munsiffs' Courts	21
Village Courts	209

Prior to the Rendition, the Judicial Commissioner and thereafter up to May 1884, when a Chief Court of three Judges was constituted, the Chief Judge was at the head of the Judicial Department. The Chief Court is the highest Court of appeal, reference and revision in the territories of Mysore, and has powers of superintendence and control over all the other Courts in the State. The full Court must consist of three judges, but power is taken to appoint a larger number, if necessary, and for about a year

Chief Court
of Mysore.

in the year 1908-09, an additional Judge was appointed under this power. The normal jurisdiction is appellate and revisional only, but the Government have power to confer on the Court original jurisdiction also and this has been done when from time to time the Bangalore Division was without a District Judge's Court. The original jurisdiction thus conferred is exercised by one of the Judges of the Chief Court sitting for that purpose and from his decisions appeal lies to a bench of two other Judges of the Court or to the Full Court if so directed by the Government. The appellate jurisdiction is exercised, ordinarily, by benches of two Judges, and the Full Court sits to determine questions referred to it by a bench. The revisional jurisdiction is, in general, exercised, by a single Judge of the Court without appeal. The procedure of the Chief Court as of all the Courts in the State, other than Village Courts, is that laid down in the Code of Civil Procedure, which is practically identical with that in force in British India. There are also powers to withdraw cases from other Courts for trial before the Chief Court itself, to transfer cases from itself to other competent inferior Courts, and from Court to Court, and under the general power of superintendence to inspect all the inferior Courts of the State.

District
Judges'
Courts.

There are now three such Courts—one in Bangalore with jurisdiction over the districts of Bangalore, Kolar and Tumkur, one in Mysore with jurisdiction over the districts of Mysore and Hassan, and one in Shimoga with jurisdiction over the districts of Shimoga, Kadur and Chitaldrug. These Courts exercise unlimited original civil jurisdiction within their territorial limits. Their normal original jurisdiction extends to suits exceeding Rs. 10,000 in value, and they exercise exclusive jurisdiction over Probate Administration, Land Acquisition and Minors' cases. They have, subject to the superintendence

of the Chief Court, general control over all the Civil Courts within their territorial limits. They hear appeals from Munsiffs and Subordinate Judges when the value of the case does not exceed Rs. 3,000. The Judges are required to inspect the Courts.

There are three Subordinate Judges' Courts, one in Bangalore, one in Mysore and one in Shimoga, having territorial jurisdiction practically co-terminous with those of their respective District Courts. This class of Judges exercised, till 1st April 1899, original civil jurisdiction in suits exceeding Rs. 1,000 but not exceeding Rs. 5,000 in value. The present pecuniary jurisdiction of these courts comprises suits exceeding Rs. 2,500, but not exceeding Rs. 10,000 in value. They also exercised small cause jurisdiction in respect of money suits above Rs. 50, but not exceeding Rs. 100 in value from 1st July 1883. In the case of the Subordinate Judge, Bangalore, the limit was raised to Rs. 300 in 1903, and it was similarly raised in the case of the other two Subordinate Judges in 1921. The Subordinate Judges of Mysore and Shimoga are authorised to hear appeals from decisions of Munsiffs transferred to them by the respective District Judges.

At present, there are 21 permanent Courts. During the year 1916-17, a scheme for the recruitment of Munsiffs by means of competitive examination was sanctioned, but the rules are held in abeyance. Munsiffs exercised original jurisdiction in cases up to Rs. 1,000 in value till 1st April 1899, when it was raised to Rs. 2,500. They were invested with the powers of courts of small causes within the local limits of their jurisdiction in respect of money suits not exceeding Rs. 50 in value from 1st July 1883. The value limit was raised to Rs. 100 in 1921 in the case of all the Munsiffs except those stationed at Bangalore, Mysore and Shimoga.

Village
Courts.

Representations were made to Government from time to time in the Representative Assembly, that people living in rural tracts were put to great inconvenience in having to travel long distances for the institution and conduct of petty civil suits before the ordinary courts of the State. The members suggested the establishment of village courts as in the neighbouring British Provinces. This suggestion commended itself to the Chief Court and as a result, a Regulation called the Village Courts Regulation, VII of 1913, was enacted, chiefly based on the Madras Village Courts Act I of 1889. The Regulation is of enabling character and provides for the establishment of Village Courts in specified areas to be presided over by a Village Munsiff appointed from among the residents of the village by the Deputy Commissioner of the District. Provision has also been made for trial by a Bench of 3 members whenever either of the parties to the suit claims such a trial. The Village Courts exercise exclusive jurisdiction in respect of certain classes of suits up to a pecuniary limit of Rs. 20 and up to Rs. 200, on the consent in writing of both parties. Suits in respect of immovable property and other suits in which important and complicated questions are likely to arise are excluded from the purview of these Courts. Provision is also made for the execution of decrees passed by a Village Court. There were 209 Village Courts at the close of the year 1923-24.

Regulations,
etc., govern-
ing the Civil
Courts.

The constitution of the Mysore Chief Court is regulated by the Mysore Chief Court Regulation, I of 1884, as amended by Regulations, II of 1890, IV of 1903, II of 1905, III of 1909 and III of 1911. The Mysore Civil Courts Regulation, I of 1883, as amended by Regulations, V of 1892, VI of 1894, II of 1898, III of 1901, VIII of 1911 and IX of 1915 governs the constitution of the subordinate Civil Courts. The circular orders and

Civil Rules of Practice issued from time to time by the Chief Court for the guidance of subordinate judicial officers are embodied in a small compendium called the "Civil Digest." Each Munsiff's Court maintains a staff of process servers and *amins* for serving processes. A guide in Kannada for the use of process servers was prepared and issued in 1907.

The following statistics relate to Civil Justice in the State :—

	1881-82	1923-24
Number of Civil Courts ...	35	31 including 3 temporary Munsiffs' Courts and excluding Village Courts.
Number of suits instituted ...	14,596	33,114
Suits whose value is above Rs. 5,000.	13	80
Suits not estimable in money.	167	414
Receipts ...	Rs. 2,39,212	Rs. 10,31,585
Expenditure ...	Rs. 3,45,232	Rs. 6,14,776

(ii) CRIMINAL JUSTICE.

Non-Regulation Period 1831-55.

As described above in the section on Civil Justice, the following were the Courts for the administration of justice, Civil as well as Criminal, till 1854 : —

Taluk or Amildars' Courts	85
Town Munsiffs' Courts	2
Principal Sadar	8
Munsiff's Court	
Superintendents' Courts	4
Huzur Adalat	1
Court of the Commissioner	1
Total	101

The system of Criminal Procedure which then prevailed is contained in paras 97 to 135 of the *Memorandum on the system of Judicature*, the salient features of which are given below.

Amildar
Magistrates.

The Amildar was head of the Police in his taluk, and to assist him in revenue and magisterial business, he had under his orders, a Peshkar, a Killedar, Shekdars, Hoblidars, Daffedars and Kandachār peons; of these, the Killedar and Hoblidar only were exclusively police officers. In cases of personal wrongs, or for petty offences, the Amildar had power to confine an individual in the stocks for not more than 12 hours, or to confine a person not in the stocks or in irons, for not more than 14 days. The Amildar could not keep any jurisdiction only when cases were referred to him for investigation by the Commissioner.

Sentence of
death.

All sentences of death had to be submitted to the Government of India for confirmation.

Panchāyets.

Panchāyets for Civil and Criminal investigations were summoned in the same manner, and a prisoner had the same permission to challenge as a plaintiff or defendant. There was this difference, however, that no criminal investigation was permitted to be carried on without a panchāyet whereas, in civil cases, it was optional with the head of the Court to convene one or not, as he thought desirable.

Notoriously
bad
characters.

Magistrates and District Police Officers under the orders of the Magistrate, were permitted to apprehend and place in confinement persons of notoriously bad character, or whose habits of life were suspicious, until they could give good and reliable security for their future good conduct.

Villagers were authorized and encouraged to use arms of every description in defending themselves and their property whenever their village was attacked by either gang or torch robbers, and valuable bangles were bestowed by the Government on those who distinguished themselves on such occasions.

Use of arms
by Villagers.

The Naiks of the Lambanies, and the head men of the Koramars and Waddars, these three castes, but more particularly the two former, being looked upon as the professional thieves of this part of India, were obliged to furnish good and reliable security for the good conduct of their *Tandas* in the case of the first and of those under their immediate control in the case of the others.

Criminal
tribes.

Transition Period (1856-1862).

As mentioned in the section on "Civil Justice" above, after the re-organization in 1862-63, the following officers dealt with criminal cases, the Sadar Adalat and the Munsiffs' Courts being abolished :—

Criminal
Courts after
the re-organ-
ization.

Judicial Commissioner.

Superintendents of Divisions.

Deputy Superintendents of Districts.

European and Indian Assistant Superintendents and Amildars of Taluks.

The Superintendents of Divisions were vested with the powers of Sessions Judges; the Judicial Commissioner was vested with the powers of the Sadar Court. Sessions cases in which a sentence of death was passed on the prisoners were forwarded for confirmation to his Court which was one of final reference, of revision, and of appeal, in all judicial proceedings.

Appellate
powers.

Regulation Period (1863-81).

In 1872, the new Criminal Procedure Code, Act X of 1872 was introduced into Mysore.

Introduction
of the Crimi-
nal Procedure
Code.

Separation of
Civil and
Criminal
functions.

In 1873 was commenced, as a step towards the separation of civil and criminal functions, the formation of Munsiffs' Courts in the Nandidrug Division, which relieved the Amildars of jurisdiction in civil cases and enabled them to devote more attention to their revenue duties. The measure was extended to Ashtagrām and Nagar in 1875, the expense of the new establishments being met by reducing the number of taluks. The civil powers of Deputy Commissioners were gradually curtailed and in 1879, the entire separation of civil and criminal functions was completed. In the Courts of the Taluk Magistrates, dismissals and acquittals, including withdrawals of the complaint, were numerous, and a large number of petty cases which can be legally compromised and withdrawn and which should never have been brought on the file were entertained. The magisterial powers were therefore withdrawn from the Peshkars and Sheristedars, whenever possible, and the Munsiff and the Amildar had to do the magisterial work in the taluks. In 1880, the final step was taken of making the Munsiffs Taluk Magistrates. The Amildar still retained his magisterial powers and those of Sheristedars were withdrawn, while in the reorganization of establishments, the office of Peshkar was abolished.

Period subsequent to the Rendition (1881-1924).

The
Chief Court
of Mysore.

At the time of the Rendition in March 1881, the administration of Criminal Justice was presided over by an officer styled the Chief Judge, his Court exercising the powers of a High Court as described in the Civil and Criminal Procedure Codes. In May 1884, the administration was carried on by a Court of three Judges whose powers were defined by the Chief Court Regulation, I of 1884. Except for a period of about a year from 5th December 1908, when a temporary additional Judge was

appointed to the Chief Court, that court consists usually of three Judges.

The following are the classes of Magistrates or Judges who preside over the Criminal Courts of the State :—

Criminal
Courts.

Sessions and Assistant Sessions Judges,
District Magistrates,
First Class Magistrates,
Second Class Magistrates,
Third Class Magistrates.

The powers of the several classes of courts mentioned above are referred to in the Criminal Procedure Code Regulation, II of 1904, as amended from time to time.

There are, at present, three Sessions Courts at Bangalore, Mysore and Shimoga. The Sessions Court at Bangalore was several times abolished and was last established on the 21st August 1911 with jurisdiction over the revenue districts of Bangalore, Kolar and Tumkur. Whenever the Sessions Court of Bangalore was abolished, the original criminal jurisdiction exercised by that court was transferred to the Chief Court. The Sessions Court at Mysore exercised jurisdiction over the districts of Mysore and Hassan and that at Shimoga over the districts of Kadur, Shimoga and Chitaldrug. On two occasions, in 1892-93 and 1912-13, two Additional Sessions Courts were established at Kadur and Mysore to try certain sensational cases of rioting. Besides the Sessions Judges who try sessions cases, there are now three Assistant Sessions Judges in Bangalore, Mysore and Shimoga, who try the sessions cases transferred to them by the respective Sessions Judges. Assistant Sessions Courts were several times opened in important places and abolished when the necessity therefor ceased to exist.

Sessions
Courts.

**Trial of
sessions cases
by Jury.**

Trial of sessions cases is usually conducted with the aid of assessors. In 1887, the system of trial by jury was introduced into the Chief Court for the trial of sessions cases in respect of certain heinous offences. When the trial of sessions cases in respect of Bangalore Division devolved on the Sessions Judge, the system of trial by jury was continued by that court. In 1903, when a Sessions Court was re-established at Bangalore, the question of having a jury for trials before that court came up for consideration and it was ultimately decided not to revive the practice. This question having been urged at several of the sessions of the Representative Assembly, Government ordered in May 1917 that the Jury system be introduced into the Bangalore and Mysore Districts from 1st July 1917. The system was extended in 1922 to the Districts of Kadur and Tumkur. Its introduction into the Districts of Shimoga and Kolar is now before the Government.

**Circuit
Sessions.**

The practice of holding Circuit Sessions has long been in vogue, though for short periods before November 1888, the system had been abolished.

**District
Magistrates.**

There are 8 District Magistrates, one for each district. The Magistrates hear appeals also.

**First Class
Magistrates.**

On the 30th June 1924, there were 21 Magistrates of the 1st Class and some of these were empowered to hear appeals against the orders of subordinate magistrates. These include the City Magistrates of Mysore and Bangalore and the Special Magistrate of Kolar Gold Fields.

**Second and
Third Class
Magistrates.**

During 1923-24, there were 21 Magistrates of the 2nd class and 15 Magistrates of the 3rd class, including the several Amildars and Munsiffs exercising Magisterial

powers and apart from 58 Honorary Magistrates. During the year 1908-09, on account of the impending famine in the State, Government conferred on some of the Munsiffs and Sub-Judges Magisterial powers temporarily, in order to enable revenue officers to devote more time to the relief of distress. For similar reasons, three Taluk Sheristedars, three Sub-Registrars and three Revenue Probationers were invested with 3rd Class Magisterial powers. The Magisterial powers thus temporarily invested were withdrawn in 1909-10.

As an experiment in the way of the separation of executive from judicial functions, the Amildars of Bangalore, Mysore, Kolar, Hassan, Hole-Narsipur, Sagar and Madhugiri Taluks were relieved in 1907 of their Magisterial duties which were assigned in Bangalore and Mysore to the respective City Magistrates and in the other stations to the Munsiffs. Some of these Amildars were later on re-invested with Magisterial powers on account of the heavy civil work of the Munsiffs. The Government, being of opinion that it would tend on the whole to a better and prompter administration of criminal justice if the duty of trying cases were assigned as far as possible to officers whose attention was not distracted by other important and heavy work, sanctioned in May 1918 a scheme for providing a separate agency for the disposal of original criminal work. According to this scheme, there are three grades of Special Magistrates, the First Grade Magistrates being First Class Magistrates, and as a rule exercising Appellate powers; the Second Grade Magistrates being generally exercising Second Class powers and invested in special cases with First Class and Appellate powers, and the Third Grade Magistrates generally exercising Second Class powers. There are also Benches of Magistrates constituted in places wherever possible for the trial of second and third class cases.

Separation of
Executive
from Judicial
functions.

Assistant Commissioners, Amildars and Deputy Amildars continue to be Magistrates, *ex-officio*, but they have ceased to exercise magisterial functions in practice except such as are really executive in their nature, as for instance, those referred to in Chapters VIII to XII of the Criminal Procedure Code.

The scheme was in the first instance introduced into the Districts of Bangalore and Shimoga, where it came into operation from 1st January 1919. It was extended into the Mysore and Kadur Districts from 1st January 1920, into the Kolar District from 1st November 1923, and into the Districts of Hassan and Tumkur with effect from 1st September and 1st November 1924, respectively. On 1st July 1925, the scheme was extended to Chitaldrug District.

Honorary
Magistrates.

Orders were passed sanctioning as an experimental measure the appointment of Honorary Magistrates for the towns of Bangalore and Mysore and they entered on their duties as such in 1909-10. In view of the good work turned out by these courts, they were made permanent in 1912-13. During the year 1915-16, sanction was accorded to the formation of a Bench of Magistrates for each of the towns of Tumkur, Chikmagalur, Hassan and Chitaldrug. These courts were made permanent in May 1918. There are, at present, Bench Magistrates' Courts in all the Districts, their total number at the close of 1923-24 being 58.

Statistics of
Criminal
Justice.

The following statistics relate to Criminal justice in the State :—

	1881-82.	1923-24.
Number of Criminal Courts ...	125	129
Number of Offences reported ...	11,418	17,547
Receipts of the several Criminal Courts ...	Rs. 47,278	Rs. 82,648
Expenditure of the several Criminal Courts ...	Rs. 2,33,190	Rs. 2,44,364

SECTION 3.—REGISTRATION OF ASSURANCES.

Prior to the Renditin.

Registration Act XVI of 1864 came into operation in Mysore on the 1st January 1866, and the amended Act XX of 1866 on the 1st January 1867. By a new Act, No. VIII of 1871, introduced in September 1871, a large class of documents previously subject to compulsory registration was exempted, namely, coffee land grants, inam title deeds and various assignments of land made by Government. Other provisions of that enactment such as the admission of unregistered documents in evidence of contracts even where they relate to immovable property and the withdrawal of the special advantages conferred on registered instruments by the old Act, by removing the obligation in some cases and the incentive in others, tended to reduce the work of the Department. Act III of 1877 introduced into Mysore from 13th June 1877 repealed the above Act, *viz.*, No. VIII of 1871.

Registration Act.

A revised scale of fees was introduced from the 1st September 1878. Whilst the fees for the registration of documents relating to immovable property of the higher values were somewhat enhanced, the minimum fee of one rupee which former applied to all documents of the value of less than Rs. 100 was reduced to 8 annas in the case of documents of the value of not more than Rs. 50. So also for documents of value above Rs. 100 relating to movable property, which are registrable at the option of the parties, the fees were reduced to one-half of those prescribed for documents of immovable property of like value, the object being to encourage optional registration.

Scale of fees.

After the Rendition.

The Mysore Registration Regulation No. I of 1903, which was introduced in Mysore on the 27th day of June

Legislative enactments.

1903, as amended by Regulation No. VI of 1908 (No. VII of 1921 and No. III of 1922) is now in force. This Regulation was mainly intended to adopt a number of amendments passed from time to time in British India and to alter the wording of the Act in places to suit the circumstances of the State.

Registration
Manual.

The above enactments, the rules thereunder and the Departmental circulars are embodied in the *Registration Manual*. These provide for the agency necessary for the registration of documents, lay down the duties and powers of the different classes of officers, declare what documents are registrable, the effects of registration and non-registration and prescribe the mode, time and place of presentation of documents, their admission and registration.

Revision of
the scale of
fees.

The scale of fees fixed for the registration of the several classes of documents was revised in 1922-23 and is given in the *Registration Manual*, Part III, and the Notifications dated 4th July 1922 and 6th January 1923.

Direction.

Till the year 1886, the office of the Inspector-General of Registration was combined with that of the Comptroller who was also Superintendent of the Government Press. The office was subsequently held by the Legislative Secretary and then by the Muzrai Secretary till April 1901, when the Excise Commissioner in Mysore was appointed *ex-officio* Inspector-General of Registration. This arrangement still continues.

Agency.

The Deputy Commissioners of Districts were *ex-officio* District Registrars and Amildars of Taluks were Sub-Registrars. Wherever the work increased to a certain extent, Special Sub-Registrars were appointed. In 1891-92, Deputy Commissioners were relieved of

registration work, the Revenue Assistant Commissioners being appointed in their stead. Similarly, Taluk Sheristadars relieved the Amildars (but not the Deputy Amildars) of the work. In 1894-95, however, Deputy Commissioners were again made District Registrars and they still continue as such. In 1904-05, Assistant Commissioners in charge of the various Revenue Sub-Divisions were appointed *ex-officio* Inspectors of the several registration offices in their respective Sub-Divisions and the Treasury Assistant Commissioners were appointed *ex-officio* Inspectors of such offices in the Taluks under the direct charge of the Deputy Commissioners.

As a safeguard against false personation, the system of taking thumb impressions of the executants of documents was first introduced in 1903-04 in certain taluks and was subsequently extended to all other offices. In 1912-13, it was made incumbent on the registering officer to require every executant to affix his thumb impression and to make a note in the case of refusal.

During the year 1923-24, there were 78 Sub-Registrars in the State of whom 60 were Special Sub-Registrars and 18 *ex-officio* Sub-Registrars.

The receipts amounted to Rs. 3,01,678 in 1923-24 as against Rs. 52,173 in 1881-82. The expenditure in 1923-24 was Rs. 1,49,541 as against Rs. 25,266 in 1881-82. The number of documents registered has risen from 16,815 in 1881-82 to 1,29,269 in 1923-24.

SECTION 4.—POLICE.

In a report of Sir Mark Cubbon dated 26th April 1838, it is stated that, under the Hindu rulers of Mysore, the duties of the Police were conducted by village servants of various denominations such as *Talvars*, *Totis*, *Nirgantis*,

Thumb
Impressions.

Number of
sub-registry
offices.

Miscel-
laneous

Under the
early Hindu
Rulers up to
1831.

Kavalgars, *Kattabidi* peons, *Hale paiki*, *Umblidars*, *Amargars*, *Hulagavals*, *Ankamala*, *Kalla koramars*, *Patels* and *Shanbhogs* and that these denominations were continued with little variation under the Government of Haidar Ali, Tipu Sultān and Pūrnaiya. These servants were paid either in inam lands, shares of grain from the raiyats or direct from the Sircar. Haidar took no steps to restore to the Patels the allowances sequestered by Kanthirava Wodeyar, but by continuing to the other servants their emoluments and privileges, he ensured their services. Under Tipu Sultān, the Police, though impaired by the reduction of many of the Patels, *Umblidars* and *Amargars* and by the assessment levied upon their inam lands, was still kept in a fair state of efficiency. Under the rule of Pūrnaiya, many of the Patels whom Tipu had spared were reduced and the Patels' inams which, though sequestered, were being entered in the accounts as *Sevayi jama* or Extra Revenue and thus kept separate, were included under the general revenue of the country. In the capital, the police authority was aided by the Barr or Infantry, a large body of which was constantly stationed in the town for that purpose.

With the neglect and decline of the Village Police, another body of police called the *Kandachār* peons came into existence during the time of Pūrnaiya. The *Kandachār* or taluk peons were originally an irregular infantry. In Haidar's time, they were 110,000 strong and in 1832, they numbered 14,000. According to Col. Wilks' report of 5th December 1804, they had their village pay, half in land and half in money and received batta, if called out from their respective districts, and their duties, in the main, were the apprehension of prisoners, their custody, their protection in jails, the guardianship of forts, the construction of roads and bridges and even the conveyance of palanquins as well as letter bags through the districts.

In 1834, a circular order called the Police *Hookum-nāmāh* was issued defining the duties of the *Kandachār* peons and providing for increase to the efficiency of the Police of the country. The *Kandachār* peons were thenceforward exclusively Police peons, though employed in rotation in the collection of revenue. About 1847, the number of *Kandachār* peons was reduced and their pay was increased. They continued to be employed on every description of police duty in the taluks, in guarding the Taluk Treasuries and Jails, in procuring supplies for troops, superintending cultivation and assisting the revenue servants in the collection of revenue. The men of the Barr Infantry and Silledar Horse were employed as District Treasury and Jail guards, as Frontier Police and as town and cutcherry guards at Suddar stations.

Non-Regulation Period (1831-1856).

Early in 1859, the Military Finance Commission of the Government of India suggested the formation of a Civil Police corps to relieve the Regular Infantry of the Army of certain duties such as escorting treasure, furnishing guards to Jail and District Treasuries.

Transition Period (1856-1862).

On the 16th December 1862, the Commissioner of Mysore issued a circular to the Divisional Superintendents and reductions were effected in the number of *Kandachār* peons and their pay was increased. The most inefficient men were got rid of and they were generally now confined to their legitimate duties, a separation having been made between the Revenue and Police peons. The first step towards reform was the introduction in 1866 of the Police Act V of 1861 into the Bangalore District and the appointment of an officer of the Madras Police to the charge of the district. It was at that time contemplated to introduce the Madras system throughout the State, but the new system

Regulation Period (1863-1881).

having been found to be expensive and defective in some respects, the task of reconstruction by remodelling the Village Police was begun and the following principles were laid down by Government on the scheme drawn up by Mr. Mangles, Judicial Commissioner.

(a) The Village Police should be restored to a condition of reasonable vigour and efficiency. Their duties should be carried on under the guidance of a few simple rules. Their remuneration should be provided for by rent free assignments from unassessed lands; magisterial powers in petty cases should be vested in competent heads of villages.

(b) The *Kandachār* Police should be replaced by a constabulary having the Village Police for its basis. The relations of the Village Police with the Regular Police should be clearly defined.

(c) The Regular Police need not be armed and drilled, as the local Barr force would suffice for repressive purposes.

Two sets of rules, one for the organization of the Village Police and the other for the Regular Police, drawn up in accordance with the above principles, were sanctioned by the Government of India and issued in October 1872; and in 1873, the system was, as recommended by Mr. Mangles, introduced throughout the Chitaldrug District which was the only one completely surveyed and settled, but it was soon found that the reconstitution of the Village Police would require time as the men available for employment required training and the village patels being illiterate, were incapable of performing the functions allotted to them. An *ad interim* measure was therefore introduced in 1874 for the improvement of the existing force in the other districts by the discharge of incompetent men and the introduction of an improved class on better pay, accompanied by a numerical reduction of the force. Provision was made for instructing all grades in police duties and requiring the officers to pass an examination. By these special rules, the District

Police was governed ; while the Police force of the Town and Cantonment of Bangalore was administered under Act V of 1861.

In 1856, the office of the Judicial Commissioner was newly established and he became *Ex-officio* Inspector-General of Police. A Deputy Inspector-General of Police was appointed in 1873. He was also a *quasi* Secretary to the Judicial Commissioner. In the districts, the Deputy Commissioner was *Ex-officio* head of the Police and was from the year 1874 aided by one of the Assistant Commissioners who was designated the Police Assistant. In 1874 and 1875, orders were issued defining the relative position, functions and responsibility of the Deputy Inspector-General, the Deputy Commissioners, Police Assistants, Amildars and Inspectors under the new arrangements. As a result of the general retrenchments carried on after the famine of 1876-1877, the post of Deputy Inspector-General was abolished in 1879 and the work of control and general supervision of the police devolving on the Deputy Inspector-General and the Judicial Commissioner was carried on in the General Branch of the Chief Commissioner's Office, the Military Assistant supervising the clothing, equipment, drill and discipline of the Police Force. Simultaneously, the Judicial Commissioner ceased to exercise the powers of the Inspector-General of Police and in August 1879, the Chief Commissioner assumed direct control of the Police through his Secretary in the General Department. According to an order issued by Mr. (afterwards Sir James) Gordon in 1880, the Police Assistant Commissionerships were abolished and the Deputy Commissioners were empowered to employ the General Assistant Commissioners on any particular work, the general management of the Police duties of the district and the Police Branch of the District Office resting with

Direction.

the Deputy Commissioner himself. The Head-quarter Inspector of Police was the Deputy Commissioner's Sheristedar in the Police Department. In the taluks, the Police were under the Amildar. By January 1881, the reorganization of the Police had been carried out and the Chief Commissioner issued a circular conveying instructions as to the scope and extent of the powers to be exercised by the Deputy Commissioners and Amildars in regard to the internal economy of the Force.

Miscellaneous
(accommoda-
tion, clothing
and arms,
etc.).

Every effort was made to make the service popular. Station houses were built wherever shelter was not available and huts constructed wherever accommodation was not easily procurable. Batta was also given at hilly and ghat stations and suitable clothing issued to the men of the Force. The ordinary weapon of the Rural Police was a stout bamboo cudgel about one and a half inches thick and 40 inches long fitted with brass ferrules at the ends. A few fusils with sword bayonets were also issued to men stationed in isolated localities where they were specially needed.

After the Rendition.

Direction.

The direction of the Police in Mysore, after the Rendition, was at first in the hands of the Dewan and the Deputy Commissioners. A Police Secretary was afterwards appointed, and in 1883, this position was filled by the officer who was also Education Secretary. In 1885, an Inspector-General of Police was appointed, the same officer being also Inspector-General of Forests and Plantations and Director of Agriculture and Statistics. The Office of the Police Assistant Commissioner was at the same time revived and they, one in each district, with the Superintendent of Police in Bangalore, acted under the general supervision of the Deputy Commissioners; Amildars and Deputy Amildars continued as the

head of the Taluk and Sub-Taluk Police respectively, aided by Inspectors and Jamedars. At the end of 1891, the Police Department was further re-organized and an Indian Officer was appointed as full-time Inspector-General of Police and Police Assistant Commissioners were graded as Superintendents and Assistant Superintendents of Police. In 1906, the Superintendents and Assistant Superintendents of Police were merged in the general cadre of Assistant Commissioners of all departments.

The Police Force in Mysore consists of:—

Police force
in Mysore.

- (1) The Village Police, and
- (2) The Regular Police.

The Village Police are the hereditary village servants, *viz.*, the Patel and the Toti or Talvar, organized under Section 3 of the Police Regulation V of 1908. They report crime and help the Regular Police in the prevention and detection of crime. The Patel is held responsible for the enforcement of night watch in villages, for the up-keep of boundary hedges and village choultries and for the general safety of the villagers. The Village Police were, in 1901-02, provided with a suitable uniform and lances.

The Regular Police consists of officers and men appointed and enrolled under Regulation V of 1908. The main divisions of the Police Force for administrative purposes are:—

Regular
Police.

- (1) The District Police.
- (2) The City Kolar Gold Fields Force.
- (3) The Railway Police.
- (4) The Criminal Investigation Department.
- (5) The Provincial Reserve Police.
- (6) The Tarikere-Narasimharājapura Tramway Police.
- (7) The Finger Print Bureau.
- (8) The Head-quarter Police Training School.

District
Police.

The District Police consists of the Taluk Police and the District Reserve Force including the armed emergency Reserve, the former occupying the various stations for ordinary police duty and the latter attached to the District Police Office to meet casualties, etc. In the year 1891, the system of night watch by the inhabitants was discontinued in the head-quarters of taluks which are municipal towns, and this duty has since then devolved on the Regular Police. The District Police consisted of 512 officers and 4,044 men at the end of the year 1923-1924.

The City
Police.

The City Police for Bangalore and Mysore numbered 688 persons in 1923-24 and form a separate body with systematic arrangements for a careful and vigorous night patrol. The appointment of an Assistant Superintendent of Police was in 1922 sanctioned for the direct charge of the Bangalore City in place of the Chief Inspector, who was absorbed in the cadre, so as to obtain a more careful check and supervision over Crime and Criminals in the City of Bangalore also, as in the case of Mysore City.

The Kolar
Gold Fields
Police.

The Kolar Gold Fields Police consisting of 50 officers and 307 men are employed to maintain order in the mining area. They form a special body better trained and equipped than the District Police and armed with smooth bore breech loaders. On account of the importance of the Kolar Gold Fields area, the regular Police Establishment is supplemented by a Detective staff and the whole Police force is under a special grade European Superintendent.

The Railway
Police.

The Railway Police on the railway lines and the Tramway between Tarikere and Narasimharājapura within the jurisdiction of the Mysore State was 168 strong at the end of 1923-24. It is a separate body which

was directly under the Inspector-General is now under the supervision of a separate Assistant Superintendent of Police who was appointed in the year 1916-17. On the opening of the Chickjajur Railway line in the Chitaldrug District, a police force of 2 Sergeants and 12 constables was attached thereto. The Railway line between Bowringpet and Gold Fields has been retransferred to the District Superintendent of Police, Kolar Gold Fields.

This department consisting of three Inspectors, two Jemadars and six men was tentatively established in the latter part of the year 1908-09 for dealing with serious organised crime under the direct supervision of the Office Assistant to the Inspector-General of Police. But latterly the staff was reduced to two Inspectors, one Sub-Inspector and four constables and made permanent; and its control has since been transferred to the Assistant Superintendent of Police, Railways.

The Criminal
Investigation
Department.

All the districts have been provided with separate Prosecuting Inspectors, relieving the executive officers from the duty of conducting prosecution before Magistrates. As the result of the introduction of the scheme relating to the separation of Executive and Judicial functions, tentatively into the different Districts of the State, additional Prosecuting Inspectors were sanctioned for prosecution work before the courts of the Special Magistrates.

Prosecuting
Inspectors.

The Provincial Reserve Force is a fully equipped semi-military body stationed at Bangalore to be called on duty on extraordinary and urgent or ceremonial occasions. This was first started in 1890. Men were selected for good physique, and were better paid and equipped and drilled than the others. They also went through a course

Provincial
Reserve
Force.

of musketry. There were different detachments of this force at Mysore, Shimoga, Tumkur and Bangalore ; but since the year 1905, they have been concentrated at Bangalore, with greater facilities for moving them to places where their services are required. In the year 1923-24, the force consisted of 13 officers and 183 constables.

Superior
Officers.

The Superior Officers of the Police consist of :—

- 1 Inspector-General of Police.
- 1 Assistant to the Inspector-General of Police.
- 1 Superintendent in charge of each of the eight districts.
- 1 Superintendent of the French Rocks Division.
- 1 Superintendent of the Kolar Gold Fields.
- 6 Assistant Superintendents (one for each of the cities of Bangalore and Mysore, one for Channapatna, one for Davangere, one for Railway and C.I.D. and one for the Police Training School).

Subordinate
Executive.

The subordinate executive officers of Police are :—

- (1) Inspectors—generally in charge of taluks.
- (2) Sub-Inspectors—in charge of investigating centres.
- (3) Jamedars or head constables.
- (4) Daffedars or sergeants.
- (5) Constables.

The last four go to form the complement of an investigating centre. The rules relating to the recruitment of the subordinate officers are laid down in Chapter III, Police Manual, Volume I.

Re-organiza
tion of the
force.

In 1913, the Police Department was further re-organized ; the pay of the Inspectors and their horse allowances were increased ; the grade of Sub-Inspectors was introduced in the place of Jamedars and the pay of Daffedars, Sergeants and Constables was raised.

The scheme was first introduced in the Shimoga District during the year 1905-06. Therefore the Police Force in the districts of Tumkur, Hassan, Kadur, Chitaldrug, Kolar and Kolar Gold Fields was re-organized and re-distributed in 1907-08, on the basis of the Investigation Centre Scheme, the essential feature of which was that the investigation of crime was to be taken up only by the higher paid Police Officers. The scheme was extended to Bangalore and Mysore Districts in 1908-09. Its introduction into the whole State is now completed.

The Investigation Centre scheme.

The *Mysore Police Manual* published in 1918 and 1919, consists of three volumes; the first volume deals with the *personnel* of the department, the procedure to be followed in Police Stations, prevention of crime, surveillance of criminals, etc., the second volume contains appendices and forms and the third volume special and local laws so far as they relate to the powers of the Police.

The Police Manual.

At the time of the Rendition, there were four Police Schools at Bangalore, Shimoga, Hassan and Chikmagalur in which police men were instructed in criminal law and procedure, in drill and in musketry. In 1892, the Bangalore School was placed on an improved footing, a training class being established. It has since developed into a well-equipped Central Police School where instruction is imparted to officers and constables in the codes and police duties of all kinds. A residential hostel is also attached to the school as an adjunct contributory to developing the tone and morale of the force. A Police criminological museum is attached to the school.

Police Training School.

Police outposts have been established for the protection of ghats and passes and for watching the movements of foreign and local predatory gangs. Registers are kept of all suspicious characters, known depredators and receivers

Police outposts.

of stolen property and gangs are escorted by the Police when they move from place to place.

The Criminal
Tribes Act
VII of 1916.

The Criminal Tribes Act VII of 1916 was introduced into Mysore, during the year 1916-17. It gives power to declare a tribe criminal, to register the members thereof and take finger prints, and generally to place a tribe under observation.

Finger Print
Bureau.

During the year 1896-97, the system of identifying old offenders by means of Bertillon's system of anthropometric measurements was introduced into the State, but was soon replaced by Henry's system of Finger Print Bureau which has been established in Bangalore and is placed under the control of the Police Assistant Superintendent in charge of the Criminal Investigation Department and Railways.

Police
Statistics

The following statement compares the strength of the Police Force, cost, etc., in the year 1881-82 and 1923-24 :—

	1881-82	1923-24
1. Strength of the Police Force ...	714 Officers 4,402 men	888 Officers 5,212 men
2. Number of cognizable offences...	5,863	6,822
3. Number of persons arrested ...	5,172	6,656
4. Number of person convicted ...	8,176	3,769
5. Cost of the department		14,76,502

SECTION 5--PRISONS.

Pre-Rendition
Period (1831-
1881).

During the Non-Regulation period, 1831-1856, there were 8 jails in the State. The system of jail management that then prevailed is described in pages 29-34 of section 2 of the *General Memorandum on Mysore*, by Sir Mark Cubbon.

Between 1856-1862, the subject of jail management received much attention. A new scale of dietary was framed. The system which formerly prevailed of supplementing each prisoner's daily allowance of ragi grain with

a money allowance of a few pies *per diem* to enable him to buy firewood, vegetables, tobacco and other luxuries was abolished. The present system of jail management may be described as dating from the construction in 1863 of the Bangalore Central Jail, an institution which not only serves as a model to the other prisons in the State, but is widely known as second to none in India. The accommodation is intended for 1,000 prisoners.

During the famine years of 1876 and 1877, the jails in the State were overcrowded. In Mysore, it was found on this account necessary to form a branch jail at Kukkarhalli temporarily and the convicts were employed on the construction of that reservoir for the water works. The other jails were so far emptied after the famine that all danger of overcrowding was removed. The Mark System was introduced in 1879 by which convicts of good conduct could earn appointments as warders and work-overseers, with some remission of sentence and small gratuities.

At the time of the Rendition, there were 9 jails in the State, one at the Head-quarters of each of the 8 Districts and an additional temporary one at Kukkarhalli near Mysore, which was abolished in June 1881. Soon after the revision of Districts and Taluks in 1882-1883, the number of District Jails was reduced from 8 to 3 and from 1st August 1883, there were only 3 District Jails in the State, *viz.*, the Central Jail at Bangalore and the District Jails of Mysore and Shimoga. The District Jail at Shimoga was abolished on 1st June 1903, a District Lock-up being opened instead. Besides these, there were lock-ups at the head-quarters of all the taluks and sub-taluks in the State. At the end of December 1913, there were in the State, 1 Central Jail located at Bangalore, 1 District Jail at Mysore, 1 Special Lock-up at Kolar Gold Fields, 6 District Lock-ups and 71 Taluk Lock-ups.

Subsequent
to the Rendition
(1891-1918).

Administra-
tion of Jails.

The Jails in Mysore were controlled *ex-officio* by the Chief Judge of Mysore under the designation of "Inspector-General of Prisons" till 30th January 1897, after which date, the control of Jails and Lock-ups was transferred to the Senior Surgeon. It continues to be under his control now. Certain revised rules for the management of District and Taluk Lock-ups were sanctioned in December 1892. In stations where there were Munsiffs, the charge of the Lock-ups was entrusted to them and in other places, the Amildar or the Deputy Amildar retained charge of them. Under a notification dated 4th April 1898, the charge of Lock-ups under Munsiffs was transferred to Medical Officers of and above the rank of Sub-Assistant Surgeons. At the head-quarters of Taluks without Assistant or Sub-Assistant Surgeons, specially selected Sub-Registrars were appointed, as a tentative measure, during the year 1904-05, to be in charge of Lock-ups, the Amildars and Deputy Amildars in such places being thereby relieved of such duties as Lock-up Officers. At present 6 lock-ups are in charge of District Medical Officers, 1 Special Lock-up in charge of the Special Magistrate, Kolar Gold Fields, 25 Lock-ups in charge of Amildars and Deputy Amildars, 42 in charge of special Sub-Registrars, 4 in charge of Assistant Surgeons and 2 in charge of Jail Superintendents.

Rules and
Regulations.

The British Indian Act XXVI of 1870—The Prisons Act—was introduced into Mysore with effect from 1st October 1879; and the rules framed thereunder have been in force in regard to matters of internal economy, discipline, expenditure, punishment and control. The management of jails is regulated at present by the *Mysore Jail Manual* (1917) and that of Lock-ups by a separate Manual called the *Lock-up Manual*, 1917.

In 1882, the practice of sending to the Andamans prisoners sentenced to transportation by the Courts in Mysore was stopped owing to the heavy cost of their up-keep in the penal settlement. Such prisoners are now kept in the Central Jail at Bangalore.

Sending prisoners to the Andamans.

By special arrangements, prisoners sentenced by the Courts of the Civil and Military Station, including those under trial and civil prisoners, are confined in the Central Jail at Bangalore. But such of the prisoners as are sentenced to more than one year's imprisonment are, after disposal of their appeal or on expiry of the appeal time, transferred to the Central Jail at Vellore.

Prisoners of the Civil and Military Station.

The rules regarding the confinement of female prisoners, juveniles and lunatics in jails are embodied in Chapters L to LII of the *Jail Manual*. Female prisoners are separated from male prisoners so as to prevent their seeing, conversing or holding any intercourse with the male prisoners. In all prisons where juveniles are confined, means are provided for separating them altogether, both by day and night, from other prisoners. Criminal lunatics are kept in the Lunatic Asylum at Bangalore and the period spent by a criminal lunatic in the Asylum counts towards his sentence.

Female prisoners, juveniles and Lunatics.

Much is done in the Central Jail at Bangalore and to a small extent in the Jail at Mysore towards educating the convicts, especially those of youthful age. The language taught is Kannada, the chief vernacular of the State. A Hindustani class was opened in the Mysore Jail in 1881. Since June 1893, no instructions were given to the adult population of the Jail, juveniles being taught Kannada and English on a moderate scale by a literate convict. In 1923, however, a whole-time teacher for teaching adult convicts was sanctioned by Government.

General Education of Convicts.

Religious and
Moral Educa-
tion.

With a view to improve the social and moral condition of convicts in the Jails at Bangalore and Mysore, arrangements have been made for instructing them on religious and moral subjects. The inmates of lock-ups are not brought under instruction as the period of their stay is very short. About the close of the year 1910-11, the local Theosophical Society, the Ramakrishna Mission and the Central Muhammadan Association of Bangalore undertake to deliver discourses on religious and moral subjects to the Hindu and Muhammadan convicts of the Bangalore Central Jail. Similar arrangements in respect of convicts of the Mysore Jail were sanctioned by Government in March 1912. During the year 1913-14, books were allowed inside each sleeping barrack and some selected prisoners read them to the rest for an hour or two before bed time. Since then prisoners have been allowed the use of books during leisure hours. The Jails of Bangalore and Mysore possess libraries. In 1922, these libraries were improved with a view to encourage literate convicts reading suitable books on religion and morals. A portion of the school time allotted for juveniles is devoted to the recital of hymns.

Non-Official
Visitors.

Besides official visitors to the Jails, included among whom are District Magistrates, Sessions Judges, the Inspector General of Police, the Inspector-General of Education and others, there are at Bangalore and Mysore a number of non-officials appointed as visitors to the Jails situated in them. They periodically visit Jails.

The Mark and
Ticket of
Leave system.

The Mark system in force in Mysore from the year 1879 was revised in April 1899. In March 1889, the Ticket of Leave system was introduced and revised rules were published in July 1892. The complication arising from the existence of a double set of rules was rather

increased by the manner in which the amount of remission was regulated. The grant of marks under the mark system involved not only considerable labour but also much scriptory work. With the promulgation of the revised *Jail Manual* in 1917, the difficulty in this connection has been avoided by the introduction of a new set of rules which are largely based on those issued by the Government of India and incorporated in the *Manual*. Rules regarding the award of ordinary and special remission of sentences and the officers competent to order such awards are contained in Chapter XX of the *Mysore Jail Manual*, Volume I.

The convicts under sentence of labour in the Jails in the State are employed in cleaning and grinding ragi, on prison duties such as prison warders, prison servants and gardeners and in the preparation of articles for use or consumption in the Jails, on manufactures and on public works. During the year 1907-08, orders were passed for the levy, from the Departments using convict labour, of a hire of two annas per head per diem, inclusive of guarding charges, so as to recompense the Jail Department for the convicts employed on extra mural labour; but in the case of convict labour employed in the Palace and the Dewan's residence, no charges are levied. In 1922, the rate per diem per prisoner engaged on extra mural labour was raised from two annas to four annas.

Convict
Labour.

The chief industries in the Central Jail at Bangalore are:—

Jail Industries.

- | | |
|-------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| (1) Carpet and cumbly making. | (5) Carpentry. |
| (2) Cloth weaving. | (6) Smithy. |
| (3) Tent repairing. | (7) Pottery. |
| (4) Gunny and coir work. | (8) Rattan work and basket making. |

Those in the District Jail at Mysore are :—

- | | |
|---------------|------------------------------|
| (1) Carpentry | (3) Cloth weaving |
| (2) Smithy | (4) Carpet and cumbly making |

The carpets manufactured in the Central Jail at Bangalore are well known and in great demand. Steps have been taken to increase the sale of Jail goods; proposals for improving the industries taught in the two Jails were sanctioned by Government in 1921, but, owing to the prevailing financial stringency, articles could not be purchased and the orders given effect to. Government, on 22nd June 1925, appointed a Committee to investigate the question of developing the jail industries so as to make them remunerative. The Committee after a careful study of the present position were of opinion that the industries now pushed in the Jail are sufficiently comprehensive and most suitable for prisoners and that the only additions that they would suggest were book binding, improved rattan and basket weaving and mat-making. They were also of opinion that the smithy which confines itself at present to such articles as making shackles and petty repairs was capable of great development and the making of articles such as horse-shoes might be conveniently introduced. In regard to sales, the Committee recommended that in addition to the existing arrangements for sale of the articles through the Department of Director of Industries and Commerce, some steps should be taken to notify the public of the class of articles the Jail manufactures and that there would be no objection to send warders round with the samples so that the public may know that such articles are manufactured in the Jail. Government in their order dated 22nd September 1925 accepted the recommendations of the Committee with the observation that in regard to the advertisement of Jail articles care should be taken to see that there is no

“puffing” and competition with private enterprise or industries.

From 1st January 1890, an altered scale of diet was brought into force for all the lock-ups in the State. The convicts of the Mysore District Jail and the Bangalore Central Jail having complained of the insufficiency of the existing scale of diet, orders were passed in March 1911 altering the scale so as to allow them a larger quantity of ragi-flour. The existing scale of diet to prisoners is given in Chapter XXII of the *Jail Manual*, Volume I.

Proposals for adopting such of the recommendations of the Indian Jails Committee, as are suited to the conditions prevailing in the Jails of the State, are now under the active consideration of Government.

The formation of Prisoners' Aid Societies to assist released convicts in finding suitable employment for earning their livelihood, at Bangalore and Mysore, is at present receiving the attention of the two Municipalities and Government.

Civil prisoners are usually lodged in the two Jails at Bangalore and Mysore and in the District Lock-ups.

The subjoined table gives information regarding prisons, prison offences, etc :—

	1881	1891	1901	1911	1917	1923
Number of Central Jail	1	1	1	1	1	1
„ District Jails ...	8	2	2	1	1	1
„ Lock-ups ...	81	78	78	79	78	78
Prison offences ...	123	67	448	25	294	492
Mortality in prisons ...	39	11	20	10	16	9
Number of convicts at the close of the year.	1,772	994	1,002	798	780	909
Cost of maintaining and guarding prisoners in rupees.	1,58,507	83,443	1,12,244	98,731	1,04,264	1,26,647

SECTION 6—LOCAL AND MUNICIPAL (LOCAL SELF-GOVERNMENT).

Pre-Rendition Period.

Origin of
Municipal
and Local
Funds.

The *Kachara Terige* or conservancy tax levied in the Mysore City for sanitary purposes and the plough tax imposed for the improvement of cross roads in 1860 in connection with the revision of mohatarfa form the basis of Municipal and Local Funds in the State. The proceeds of these taxes were not, in the beginning, kept separate from the general revenues; and Municipal and Local Funds, in the strict sense of the terms, were not formed till the year 1862. The establishment of the funds, however, engaged the attention of the Commissioner since 1860 and Superintendents of Divisions were, at the instance of the Government of India, requested to submit their views as to the practicability of establishing these Funds in the State and the best method of administering them. As a result of the enquiry, the principal inhabitants of Bangalore signed a declaration binding themselves to abide by the Municipal Act XXVI of 1850 of the Government of India and this declaration was forwarded to the Commissioner by the Chief Engineer in October 1861.

Origin of
Municipalities.

In March 1862, as an experimental measure, a municipal committee was constituted at Bangalore consisting of nine members who elected a President and Vice-President from among themselves. This Committee of nine members consisted of the Executive Engineer, a European Assistant, one European gentleman of local knowledge and influence and not more than six Indian members, official and non-official, who were thought likely to take active interest in municipal matters. To finance the Committee, the Commissioner sanctioned the levy of a conservancy tax (*Kachara Terige*) at 4 annas

per *ankanam*. All projects proposed to be carried out required the sanction of the Commissioner and also notification to the Chief Engineer. All accounts were to be forwarded quarterly to the Commissioner's office. A similar Committee was constituted at Mysore also during the year 1862. In Bangalore, people learnt to appreciate the advantages of good roads, well kept drains and pure water; and little opposition was encountered when projects of general utility were brought forward. In Mysore, only improvement of roads, conservancy and drainage which required immediate attention were undertaken.

By 1864-65, each of the eight District head-quarter stations possessed a Municipal Committee. The measure was next extended to Taluk *Kasbas* and eventually to other large trading towns and villages. The District head-quarter municipalities were the most important, the municipal proceedings in minor towns being at first limited to conservancy operations in which, however, material improvements were visible. In all these municipalities, regularly organised Boards were formed in the year 1871 consisting of some of the most influential European and Indian members of the community. In addition to the Divisional Commissioners, the Board was further composed of six *ex-officio* members who were specially selected to represent all branches of the official community, the number being restricted to a third of the total number of members.

Municipalities
at District
and Taluk
Head-
quarters.

In the smaller towns where it was found difficult to constitute regular Boards, Municipal Regulations were, with great advantage, introduced and enforced through the agency of the revenue officers.

In 1869, a notification was issued specifying the municipal offences punishable by Amildars and it was

Municipal
offences.

made applicable to many Taluk head-quarters and important towns.

Presidents of
Municipali-
ties.

In the *General Administration Report* for the year 1872-73, the following paragraph occurs:—

“In Bangalore where the municipal operations are conducted on a large scale and their control and direction require special attention and involve much labour, the President is paid Rs. 700 per mensem, which is defrayed by the municipalities of the Cantonment and town of Bangalore, in the proportion of two-thirds and one-third, respectively. In the other District head-quarter municipalities, no salary was attached to the office of the President, a selected Government Official of the Station undertaking the charge in addition to his other duties.”

Municipal
Funds.

On 12th May 1862, orders were issued directing the establishment of municipal funds for the sanitary improvements and the watch and ward requirements of towns. Town dues including tobacco duties, octroi and nuzool, *i.e.*, unclaimed or confiscated town lands or houses and sale proceeds of building sites provisionally constituted the municipal funds and these were to be spent exclusively upon municipal requirements, the amount contributed by each town being spent for the improvement of that town under the general supervision of the Superintendent assisted by a Committee. In addition to the items referred to above, rents from market and sale proceeds of manure or rubbish collected by the conservancy staff also accrued to the municipal funds. The income from these sources being found to be insufficient, a tax on houses was levied in some of the municipalities. In 1863, all *sayer* collections in Mysore City were transferred to the municipality. The income from mohatarfa in the District head-quarter stations and Seringapatam was assigned from time to time to the Municipal Boards concerned in consideration of the

Police charges of these towns being defrayed by them. To further improve the resources of the Municipal Boards, the levy of a tax on houses of individuals who were exempted from ordinary mohatarfa was authorised. In 1871, the administration and collection of duty on tobacco and betel leaves and betel nuts in the Bangalore town and Cantonment Municipalities was vested in the Municipal Boards concerned and rules were framed for the collection of octroi in these municipalities. In 1871-72, octroi was replaced by a house tax in the municipalities of the Nundydrug Division. In 1872-73, the Bangalore Pettah and Cantonment Boards were assigned the income from fees for licenses for retail vend of arrack. In June 1876, Land Revenue on agricultural lands of specified villages within the limits of Bangalore was also assigned to these Boards.

The provisions of Acts XIV of 1856 and XVIII of 1864 ceased to be in force in the Cantonment of Bangalore, on the introduction from the 1st April 1871 of a new Code of Municipal Regulations for the Cantonment and town under the authority of the Government of India. The new regulations provided for the appointment of Commissioners, for making better provision for the police, conservancy and improvement of the Cantonment and town and for enabling the Commissioners to levy taxes, tools, town dues and rates therein. Under the operations of these regulations, a material change was effected in the composition of the Board. In modification of the previous arrangements for the selection of members, the Cantonment was divided into six Divisions or Wards, from each of which two persons residing therein were nominated by Government to be Commissioners.

Municipal
Regulations.

General principles were laid down by the Government of India with regard to the levy of octroi and these were

Regularisa-
tion and revi-
sion of muni-
cipal taxation.

communicated for the guidance of Municipal Boards in October 1877. The system of municipal taxation in the State was, after careful consideration, thoroughly revised in the year 1879. The system of dual taxation of houses, one under the mohatarfa rules on behalf of Government and the other for municipal purposes on the houses of persons exempted from payment of mohatarfa, was abolished and only a single tax was ordered to be levied upon all houses without any exception, save those devoted exclusively for religious and charitable purposes and those belonging to Government. All the municipal bodies were authorised to levy house tax at uniform rates together with mohatarfa on shops, looms, oil mills and carts on condition of paying one-half of the realisation to Government and retaining the other half to themselves.

The Municipal Boards, in whose favour the entire income from mohatarfa was already assigned in consideration of their bearing the Town Police charges, were, as heretofore, allowed to enjoy the entire income from the combined house tax and the tax on items of mohatarfa. The levy of octroi on a number of articles was abolished, its incidence being restricted to only those items which proved remunerative and not vexatious. The rates of sayer and town duties were revised and the levy of municipal octroi on supāri was abolished. The collection of sayer duty at the place of production on cocoanuts, betel-leaves and tobacco was abolished and all the municipal bodies were directed to levy a combined town duty on these articles and required to contribute a moiety of the income to Government. The levy of octroi on other articles was left to the discretion of the municipal bodies concerned, subject to the sanction of the Government being obtained thereto.

Local Funds.

Local Funds were established in 1862 from the collections of the plough tax, ferry funds, sale proceeds of

stray cattle and fines for cattle trespass. The amount so raised was excluded from the general revenues and placed at the disposal of Civil Officers for the construction of 4th class village roads, subsidiary to the communications under the charge of the Department of Public Works. With the introduction of the survey and settlement into the State in 1863, the plough tax as a separate levy in the surveyed taluks was abolished being absorbed in the survey assessment. Later on by 1871-72, it was decided to levy, in addition to the assessment, a local cess of one anna in the rupee in the surveyed taluks for local purposes such as repairs of roads, education and other purposes as may be determined by a competent authority. In the unsurveyed taluks, a local cess of one per cent of the beriz was imposed on holders of Inam villages and the plough tax continued to be levied till 1871 when in lieu of all local cesses levied, a general local cess at half an anna in the rupee was ordered to be levied and this rate was subsequently raised to one anna in November 1879. Local cess was extended to sayer collections, forest and abkari contracts and other items in course of time. In towns where there were no municipalities, the revenue derived under the operation of the cattle trespass act, the rent from ferry contracts and certain other miscellaneous items were also exhibited under the head of local funds.

An irrigation cess at one anna in the rupee of the assessment was also levied upon wet lands, the separate levy of the cess being subsequently merged in the assessment in certain cases and the separate levy continuing in other cases. The realisations from the separate levy of the cess and a lumpsum allotment in cases where it was merged in the assessment went to form the Irrigation Fund in each district to meet the cost of upkeep of irrigation works.

Irrigation
Cess.

Appropriation
of Local
Funds.

At the close of the year 1862-63, general rules were prepared for the guidance of officers in regard to the administration of the funds. Orders regarding the appropriation of the collections from the local cess for the several purposes for which it was levied were passed in 1871, when it was provisionally directed that—

(1) the proceeds of cess from halat on betel nut and from abkari collections be formed into a general fund called the Local Fund General for expenditure under the sanction of the Chief Commissioner in any part of the State where special assistance appeared necessary ;

(2) twenty-four per cent of local cess on other items be utilised for village schools and shown in the accounts under a separate head called the Village School Fund ; and

(3) the remainder be spent on Public works, roads, dispensaries, hospitals, staging bungalows, etc., and shown to the Local Fund account of the District concerned.

Formation of
Local Fund
Committees.

In July 1874, rules for the establishment of local Committees for the administration of Local Funds were sanctioned by the Government of India and subsidiary rules were prescribed by the Chief Commissioner for the guidance of these Committees. Each district had a Committee with the Deputy Commissioner as President, and the Assistant Commissioners at District Headquarters and in charge of Sub-Divisions, the Executive Engineer and all Amildars as *ex-officio* members and one elected Inamdar and six nominated landholders as non-official members ; of the seven non-official members of the District Committees, three at least were required to be holders of irrigated land in the district. The duty of the Committees was to ascertain and provide for works and undertakings calculated to promote the health, comfort and convenience of the inhabitants of the districts concerned. The Committees had power to sanction estimates for works costing less than Rs. 500, estimates up to Rs. 1,000 being sanctioned by the Chief

Commissioner. The selection of works rested with the District Committees and the Presidents were responsible for getting them executed. The accounts were audited by the Deputy Accountant-General. The District Irrigation Fund formed a separate branch of the Local Funds and in February 1875, their administration was also vested in the District Committees; but the money had to be spent exclusively on irrigation works.

For the execution of cross roads and for petty irrigation repairs and other minor works under the supervision of the revenue officers, only one establishment was maintained in the beginning, the charges being apportioned between the Local Funds and the general revenues equally. Later on, the District Committees had separate establishments for execution of works and some districts had also Local Fund Engineers. This arrangement having proved expensive, the Local Fund establishment was in 1879 amalgamated with the Public Works Establishment and all works were thenceforward required to be executed by the Public Works Department.

Agency for
execution of
Public Works

Post-Rendition Period.

The Municipality of the Cantonment of Bangalore was transferred to the jurisdiction of the Resident after the Rendition and there were 83 municipalities in the State in the year 1881. During the year 1885-1886, there were 93 municipalities, in 48 of which there were Boards consisting of *ex-officio* and non-official members nominated under the orders of Government. In 1889, the number of municipalities increased to 98 and Boards were constituted in the remaining 50 municipalities. By the end of June 1904, the number further rose to 125; of these, 38 were considered not large enough to continue as municipalities, and were converted into Unions in 1903-1904 under the Local Boards Regulation of 1902.

Number of
Municipali-
ties.

There were thus 87 municipalities in the State at the end of the year 1903-1904 and the number rose to 103 at the end of the year 1923-1924. A periodical municipality was constituted in 1919-1920 in Harihar Sub-Taluk for three months, *viz.*, February, March and April every year for the purpose of holding a cattle show.

Bangalore
and Mysore
City Municipalities.

The Bangalore City Municipality continued to be governed by the Municipal Regulations of 1871 as amended by Government Notification No. 108, dated 6th April 1883, its executive charge being vested in the Vice-President nominated by Government. The above Regulation of 1871 was extended to the City of Mysore at the end of the year 1868.

Till April 1896, the Deputy Commissioner was the *ex-officio* President of the Bangalore City Municipality in his district. The *ex-officio* members did not exceed one-third of the total number of members in Bangalore and Mysore. In April 1892, the system of election was introduced into these Cities and the privilege of electing one-half of the Municipal Councillors was conferred on the rate payers. The total number of Councillors inclusive of the President, Vice-President and *ex-officio* members was then fixed at 22 for Bangalore and 24 for Mysore. The total number of Councillors was fixed at 28 for Bangalore and 30 for Mysore with effect from November 1918 and July 1917, respectively. In 1921, the number of Councillors for Bangalore was raised from 28 to 30. Of these 30, 20 are elected.

A full-time President was appointed for the Bangalore City Municipality in April 1896, the office of the Vice-President being abolished. On the outbreak of plague in 1898, this arrangement was found inconvenient and the Deputy Commissioner was again made President, *ex-officio*, and a Vice-President was appointed in October 1898. This arrangement not having worked

satisfactorily, a full-time President was appointed for the Bangalore City Municipality with effect from 9th May 1904, the office of the Vice-President being simultaneously abolished, but from July 1906, the full-time Presidentship was again abolished and the system of having an *ex-officio* President in the person of the Deputy Commissioner of Bangalore with a Vice-President to assist him was re-established. During the year 1912-1913, Government observed that the Deputy Commissioners were unable to devote the required amount of attention to the affairs of the city municipalities amidst their multifarious duties and appointed a full-time Honorary President with effect from 1913 for the Bangalore City Municipality. This arrangement continued till February 1920, when the privilege of electing a non-official President from among the Municipal Councillors was exercised by the Municipality. Under Regulation IV of 1923, amending the Mysore Municipal Regulation of 1906, power has been taken to appoint Municipal Commissioners for the two City Councils of Bangalore and Mysore in place of Chief Officers, if any, appointed to them. A Municipal Commissioner was appointed to the Bangalore City Municipality from 1st December 1923. In the Mysore City, the Deputy Commissioner was the President, *ex-officio*, of the Municipality till March 1913, when Government considered that the *ex-officio* President of the City Municipal Council and Chairman of the Board of Trustees was unable to devote the required attention to the municipal affairs in consequence of the multifarious and heavy duties ordinarily devolving on him. A whole-time Government Officer was accordingly appointed as President of the Mysore Municipal Council with effect from March 1913; and since the year 1917-1918, the Mysore City Municipal Council is being presided over by a non-official President who is also the Chairman of the Mysore City

Improvement Trust Board. For the more efficient carrying on of sanitary work, the Health Officers of Bangalore and Mysore were, for some time, appointed as Vice-Presidents of the Municipal Councils in matters relating to Public Health.

Improve-
ments in
Municipal
Administra-
tion.

In February 1914, a Committee was appointed to consider the improvements necessary in the constitution and functions of local bodies and in May 1914, another Committee was formed to investigate the scope of operation and financial organisation of Local Funds and propose measures for their revision and for placing local finances on a satisfactory footing. The reports of the two Committees were published respectively in May and June 1915. In June 1915, on the initiative of certain leading non-official gentlemen, a Local Board Conference was convened to discuss the whole question of reforms in Local Self-Government. This Conference on which nearly all the local bodies of the State were represented considered the recommendations of the two Committees and placed the Government in possession of the views of the public on all the important questions involved. Government, in their Order No. 3005-55—Ml. 132-16-1, dated 16th November 1916, discussed the specific recommendations made by the Conference and indicated the decision of Government as to the practical action to be taken on each.

The main changes effected in municipal administration are, the abolition of municipalities constituted under executive orders known as Non-Regulation Municipalities by converting them into Regulation Municipalities and classing all municipalities into City, Town and Minor, according to their importance; the introduction of an elected majority in City Councils and of an increased elected element in the other municipalities, a gradual transfer of the control of primary education and the

reduction of interference in their affairs by Government and the Deputy Commissioner to the necessary minimum. The number of elected seats on the Town Municipal Councils was increased from one-third to one-half of the total strength of the councils from the 1st April 1918 and those on the Mysore City Municipal Council to two-thirds from the 1st July 1917. The Vice-Presidents of the Bangalore and Mysore City Municipal Councils were permitted to be elected from among the Councillors. The privilege of electing the President was conceded to the City Municipal Council of Bangalore and also to the Town Municipal Councils of Kolar, Tumkur, Hassan and Chikmagalur. The City Municipal Council of Mysore is presided over by a President appointed by the Government, chosen either from among non-officials or from among those forming the public service of the State.

Chief Officers were appointed for the first time for the City Municipal Councils of Bangalore and Mysore during the year 1918-19. As already stated, his place in Bangalore was, in 1923, superseded by that of the Commissioner brought into existence by the amending Regulation IV of 1923. There were two City, 35 Town, and 66 Minor Municipalities at the end of the year 1923-24.

The number of *ex-officio* Councillors on the Town Municipal Councils was reduced. The above reforms were brought into effect only from the year 1918-19; the municipalities were classified into City, Town and Minor municipal councils in accordance with the amended Municipal Regulation V of 1918. The Deputy Commissioners have since ceased to be members of Municipal Councils as a general rule except in the case of certain Town Municipal Councils and the Amildars have been appointed Presidents of Taluk Head-quarter Municipalities as well as of Minor Municipal Councils in the taluk except when the Assistant Commissioner or a non-official gentleman is appointed as such. Several Town and Minor

Municipal Councils are allowed the privilege of electing their own Vice-Presidents. In 1921, an important addition was made to the functions of local bodies by calling on them to undertake economic work in their respective areas. Under the Reforms Scheme, it was proposed to give those bodies further powers to deal with local subjects which used to be brought before the Representative Assembly. With a view to discuss the various questions affecting the progress and development of Local Self-Government in the State and to hold a thorough examination of the proposed Local Self-Government Scheme and also to formulate proposals in keeping with the recently introduced Constitutional Reforms, Government summoned a Local Self-Government Conference in the last week of April 1923. The Conference passed 48 resolutions. Two orders, one relating to the Municipalities and the other to Local Boards, were passed by Government on the 23rd December 1923 on the resolutions of the Conference announcing the decision of Government on questions of general policy. Briefly, these are as follows so far as Municipalities are concerned :—

(1) to raise the elected element in Minor Municipal Councils from $\frac{1}{3}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$ of the total strength of the Council ; (2) to extend the franchise to women so far as voting is concerned ; (3) to provide for the appointment of an Educational Officer as an *ex-officio* member of the Council, since Education will form one of its chief functions ; (4) to provide for the election of Presidents of Municipal Councils by the general body of voters instead of by the Councils themselves from among the members, the areas in which this privilege is to be exercised being defined by the Government ; (5) to provide for the term of office of Presidents of Municipal Councils being *co-terminus* with their term as members of the Councils concerned ; (6) to give power to Municipal Councils to levy, at their option, a shop tax in lieu of a tax on professions, trades and callings ; (7) to empower the Deputy Commissioners to inspect the offices of Municipal Councils, call for records of

cases, etc., these powers being exercised only in respect of Town and Minor Municipal Councils.

Legislation on these lines is now under consideration, the necessary Bills having been introduced into the State Legislative Council. The principal object aimed at in the scheme outlined above is to arouse greater popular interest in local self-governing institutions which provide the training ground for public spirited activities in the State.

The income under municipal funds is chiefly derived from octroi and taxes on houses, shops and carts. The income from cattle pounds, sale of lands, sale of manure, fees and rents from markets and licence fees and occasional contributions from Government exhaust the ordinary sources of revenue. The house tax in the municipalities except Bangalore and Mysore is levied according to rates fixed with reference to their market value.

Municipal
Taxation and
Finance.

In the Cities of Bangalore and Mysore, house tax is levied at 5 per cent of the rental value while the water tax is collected at 3 per cent on the rental value of houses from 1900-01 in Bangalore and from 1909-10 in Mysore. Lighting tax is levied at 1 per cent of the rental value of houses in the Bangalore and Mysore City municipalities from 1897-98 and 1912-13 respectively. Tolls are levied in 13 municipalities, *viz.*, Bangalore, Mysore, Tumkur, Tiptur, Nanjangud, Shimoga, Shikarpur, Davangere, Kolar, Hassan, Chitaldrug, Chikballapur and Harihar. Special Sanitary cess is levied in Bangalore and Mysore Cities. Municipal Funds are spent chiefly on conservancy, lighting, repairs of roads, drains, water-supply and medical relief.

The income and expenditure of all municipalities in the State during the year 1923-24 amounted to Rs. 21,55,513 and Rs. 22,76,895 respectively, and they had a balance of about Rs. 905,168 at the beginning of the year.

Nearly 61 per cent of the income was derived from municipal rates and taxes. The largest item of expenditure was under Public Health and Convenience. The incidence of taxation in the Bangalore City was Rs. 3-11-8 and in Mysore, Rs. 2-8-1. In other municipalities it ranged from Re. 0-1-9 in the Mugur Municipality to Rs. 4-7-0 in the Koppa Municipality. In most of the minor municipalities, the income is very small and just covers the outlay necessary for keeping the local areas clean and repairing the roads therein. For carrying out useful public works, such as water supply, drainage, etc., contributions are made by Government to the extent of one-half as a rule and, in special cases, larger grants are also sanctioned. The water supply schemes of the two premier Cities of Bangalore and Mysore and certain other head-quarter municipalities have been carried out with the help of Government contributions. Large grants are also made for laying out extensions and carrying out large improvements needed in the Bangalore and Mysore Cities.

The future policy in respect of the maintenance of the water supply system in the two Cities of Bangalore and Mysore was thus laid down in the order dated 19th April 1922 :—

(1) The entire charges for water supply to the Bangalore City should be borne by the City Municipal Council from the 1st July 1924. For the year 1922-23, the Municipal Council should pay over the entire collections under water rate and excess water charges. Half the deficit, if any, in the year 1923-24, should be borne by the Municipal Council in that year and the entire charges should be transferred from 1924-25.

(2) As regards the Mysore City, a contribution from Government will be granted as a special case for a period of two years from 1922-23 to meet the deficit, if any, but the City Municipal Council should bear the entire cost of water supply system of the Mysore City from the year 1924-25.

(3) In the meantime, steps should be taken by both the

Municipal Councils to raise their rates of water tax so as to balance income and expenditure ; and

(4) All arrears yet to be collected and paid to Government should receive prompt attention of both the City Municipal Councils and a report should be made to Government on the 1st July 1922 showing the demand, collection and balance.

A scheme for the improvement of the Bangalore water supply was sanctioned during the year 1924-25 at a cost of about Rs. 10 lakhs with a Government grant of one-third of the cost, the balance being met by the Municipality. The increase of taxation proposed by the Municipal Council in regard to water rates and tolls was sanctioned from 1st July 1925. With a view to meet the increased expenditure and to provide for sinking funds, etc., in connection therewith, an estimate amounting to about Rs. 4,34,000 was also sanctioned during the year 1924-25 for the improvement of the Mysore City water supply. Government approved of the prospectus for floating a loan for financing the water supply scheme for Tumkur town sanctioned during 1923-24.

During the revision of sayer and octroi in 1879-80, it was directed that octroi should be levied on the sayer articles, *viz.*, betel leaves, cocoa-nuts and tobacco at the combined rates authorised in all municipal towns. It was found after some experience that the octroi duty, the levy of which was attended with much complication, was not sufficiently productive in minor municipalities. The Government therefore in 1882 observed that it was better for all the municipalities excepting those at Provincial head-quarters to dispense with the octroi and to look to a fair house tax and to the growth of a proper municipal spirit for conservancy and other town improvements. The levy of octroi except on cloth was accordingly discontinued in all the municipalities of the Shimoga District except Shimoga from the commencement of

Development
of Municipal
Income.

1883-84. In 1885-86, sanction was accorded to the abolition of octroi generally in minor municipalities and to retain it in large towns only on a few productive articles. At the end of the year 1890-91, there were only 43 out of 98 municipalities deriving income from this source. In 1893-94, the half-share due to Government out of octroi duties levied on cocoa-nuts, betel leaves and tobacco was given up to the municipalities levying them. In October 1894, the Government ordered the transfer of its half share of house and mohatarfa taxes levied within municipal towns to the municipalities concerned, on condition of their bearing a portion of the cost of primary and secondary vernacular schools maintained therein. In 1896, the income from tax on vacant building sites in the non-regulation municipalities was ordered to be credited to municipal funds. Loom tax was abolished throughout the State with effect from 1st July 1897; but where particular municipalities deemed it necessary, in the interest of their revenue, to levy town or octroi duty on cloth, a uniform rate was ordered to be adopted without reference to the place of production. Under the Village Sanitation Regulation I of 1898, fines levied under the village Sanitation for offences committed in municipal areas accrued to the municipal funds. Government in 1919, while impressing on the municipalities the desirability of legalising the levy of certain taxes by placing them on a statutory basis, indicated the lines on which the said local bodies may develop their resources by the levy of terminal taxes and by the systematic and periodical revision of the existing ones.

During the year 1920-21, rules were issued by Government for levying in all Minor Municipalities in the place of existing mohatarfa taxes—

(1) Octroi duty on animals and goods brought within municipal limits, and (2) a tax on buildings, lands, vehicles, animals, arts and professions and trades and callings.

In 1921-22, Minor Municipal Councils were further authorised to levy—

(1) Market fees and (2) toll on vehicles and animals under Section 59 (iii) and fees for licenses granted under Section 70 (i) of the Municipal Regulation.

During the year 1922-23, the Municipal Regulation was amended so as to authorise the Municipal Councils, both Town and Minor, to levy an education cess for the promotion of primary education in the State. Instructions were also issued for the proper holding of auction sales in respect of municipal toll and market fees. The provisions of the Municipal Regulation contained in Sections 75 to 79, relating to the levy of Octroi, were made applicable to all Minor Municipal Councils during the year 1923-24.

The Bangalore City Improvement work has been in operation since 1889, when the late Sir K. Seshadri Iyer organised a Committee “with a view to report and to carry out all improvements that may be sanctioned by Government upon such reports;” since then, extensions and improvements to the old city have been carried out at a cost of Rs. 31,49,211 up to 1924-25 and pure drinking water has been provided from the Chāmarājēndra Reservoir at a cost of Rs. 27,23,469, while Rs. 2,90,859 have been spent on drainage and Rs. 7,06,162 on lighting the city with electricity generated at Sivasamudram. In 1895, a resolution was adopted to dissolve the Bangalore City Improvement Committee and hand over charge of the new extensions to the Municipal Board; the Committee was again revived in 1908 to draw up a comprehensive scheme of improvements for the old city; but this work was not taken up by the Committee for want of expert assistance in town planning and a city map based on a correct survey, and consequently, in December

The
Bangalore
City Improve-
ment.

1913, the Committee was reconstituted and charged with the preparation of a correct map of the city and a rough scheme of the more important improvements. Special officers were employed to work out the drainage project of the city and also for the acquisition of properties for the city improvement.

This Committee was composed of four Government officers, three Municipal Councillors and two leading citizens with the President of the City Municipal Council as Chairman and the Senior Vice-President as Secretary. With a few additions and alterations in the personnel, the Committee consisted of 8 Government Officers inclusive of the Municipal Engineer, 4 Municipal Councillors and 2 leading citizens with the President and the Senior Vice-President of the City Municipal Council as Chairman and Secretary respectively till the end of January 1920.

Orders have been passed on the schemes of improvements prepared and submitted by the Committee from time to time and an order dated 9th May 1918 fixes the programme of works for the next three years and also specifies the arrangements for financing them. The total cost of the improvement works included in this programme amounted to Rs. 13 lakhs, exclusive of the self-supporting projects and the drainage works; Government have undertaken to contribute one-half of the cost of the drainage works and two-thirds of the cost of other improvement works and an annual grant of 3 lakhs from State Funds has been promised for the purpose.

In view of the magnitude and importance of the works to be carried out and the large share of the cost borne by them, Government further reconstituted the City Improvement Committee with effect from 1st February 1920.

The reconstituted Committee consisted of :—

(a) A Chairman and six members to be appointed by Government, and

(b) A Vice-Chairman and four Municipal Councillors to be nominated by the Municipal Council.

During the year 1921-22, the City Improvement Committee was wound up and the whole-time President of the Municipal Council appointed by Government took charge of the City Improvement Works also from the beginning of March 1922. Since then, the City Improvement Works are being carried on under the guidance of the City Municipal Council by a Special Engineer appointed for the purpose.

The Mysore City Improvement Trust Board, which was presided over solely by a non-official Chairman till 11th March 1919, is now presided over by the President of the City Municipal Council.

The Mysore
City Improve-
ment

Large sums of money were spent for the suppression of epidemics in the Mysore City and in September 1902, Government appointed an Improvement Committee to examine fully the question of the resources of the Municipality, of the expenditure required and of the mode and machinery of assessment and prompt collection. The Committee submitted a series of projects which included, among others, provision for a proper drainage system, removal of insanitary houses and formation of extensions. The projects were approved by Government. To acquire and administer the properties to be demolished, a Board of Trustees was appointed with effect from 1st December 1903 under Regulation III of 1903. The strength of the Board was originally fixed at 8, but it was subsequently raised to 9 of whom two are returned by the Municipal Council. The Board has no borrowing powers and it administers the funds placed from time to time by Government at its disposal. The Board can, however, advance loans in accordance with rules approved by Government in this behalf and it can also prescribe suitable building regulations. To facilitate prompt and

effective disposal of claims in respect of acquisition of properties, the Chairman of the Board has been empowered to exercise the powers of a Deputy Commissioner.

As a result of the Board's operations, several extensions have been laid out and insanitary properties acquired and demolished. The Mysore Fort has been improved and the improved areas of the City have been provided with underground drains.

For carrying out the operations of the Board, a sum of Rs. 3 lakhs was allotted every year till 1915-16, when it was raised by half a lakh a year and the allotment has since been raised by another lakh for a period of 5 years from 1918-19. On account of financial stringency, the State Grant of Rs. 4½ lakhs per annum could not be continued. In 1919-20, Rs. 4 lakhs was allotted. This was reduced to Rs. 3,12,064 in 1920-21 and further reduced to Rs. 1,75,000 in 1921-22 and to Rs. 1,50,000 in 1922-23. In 1923-24, the grant amounted to Rs. 1,55,000.

With a view to ensure rapid progress of the works still to be executed, the Trust Board has been requested to reconsider the desirability of carrying out productive works, schemes for housing the poor and the displaced population and laying out of extensions by raising loans.

Municipal
Employees.

In July 1898, the Government directed that all employees on the permanent establishment of municipalities (with certain definite exceptions) should be eligible for pensions and gratuities from Municipal Funds.

LOCAL FUNDS.

Post Rendition Period.

Local Fund
Committees
and Local
Boards.

The establishment of these Committees in the Pre-Rendition period has already been dealt with. In the

practical working of the District Committees, the rules of 1874 proved defective in many respects. The preponderance of the official members, absence of reasonable powers of disposal over their funds and the unlimited subordination of the Committees to Government officers in the administration of the funds chiefly resulted in the whole of the administration devolving on the Government officers. The question of remedying these defects by the constitution of a Board for each taluk in addition to one for each district and enhancing the usefulness of the Local Boards engaged the attention of Government since 1881.

At the time of the Rendition, there were nine District Fund circles, one in each of the eight districts and the other in the French Rocks Sub-Division of the Mysore District. Each circle was administered by a Board presided over by its highest revenue officer and consisting of seven non-official members and of *ex-officio* members composed of the Senior Assistant Commissioner, Executive Engineer, Civil Surgeon and all the Amildars of the Taluks in the Circle. During the year 1899-1900, the number of Local Fund circles was increased by one, the Special Local Board called "The Kolar Gold Fields Sanitary Board" having been established on the 16th November 1899. The affairs of this new circle were managed by a Board consisting of seven members of whom three were officials and four non-officials.

Composition
of Local Fund
Boards.

With a view to make better provision for the constitution of Local Boards to administer the expenditure of District Funds in Mysore and to define and regulate the powers to be exercised by those Boards, the Mysore Local Boards Regulation II of 1902 was passed on the 15th June 1902. This Regulation superseded the rules published with the Chief Commissioner's Notification

Local Boards
Regulation II
of 1902.

No. 110 dated 4th July 1874 which, as pointed out above, were found defective in several particulars and generally unsuited to existing conditions. The provisions of this Regulation did not apply to the Kolar Gold Fields Sanitary Circle which was governed by the rules under the Mysore Mines Regulation.

Rules under the above Mysore Local Boards Regulation II of 1902 were notified on 9th September 1903; and under them were established:—

(1) Unions in the place of certain *Minor Municipalities*;

(2) A Taluk Board for each of the 77 Taluks and Sub-Taluks with effect from 1st November 1903; and

(3) With effect from the same date a District Board for each of the eight Districts in the State instead of the 10 Local Fund Boards; the Kolar District being deemed to exclude the area comprised within the Kolar Gold Fields Sanitary Circle; and the French Rocks Sub-Division of the Mysore District ceasing to have a separate District Board.

The main principles underlying the constitution of these New Local Boards were:—

(1) That the strength of Panchayets for Unions should in each case be fixed by Government and that the members and Chairman thereof should be appointed by Government on the recommendation of Deputy Commissioners;

(2) That each Taluk Board should consist of twelve members as follows:—4 *ex-officio*, the Assistant Commissioner in Revenue charge of the taluk as President, the Amildar as the Vice-President, the medical officer in charge of the dispensary at the taluk head-quarters and the senior officer of the taluk of the Public Works Department; 4 *elected*, being men of the full age of 21 years, able to read and write and either holding or owning in the taluk land assessed at not less than Rs. 50 per annum, or officiating as Patel of any village in the taluk, or paying a house tax under the rules of not less than rupees five per annum; the electors being men with the same qualifications, but in their case the educational qualification not being indispensable, one member of the taluk head-quarter

Municipal Board to be *elected* by the Municipal members from among their own body and three *nominated* by Government ;

(3) That a District Board should consist of—

(a) *ex-officio* members, the Deputy Commissioner as President ; Assistant Commissioners in Revenue charge of the taluks, as well as the Assistant Commissioner, if any, at the district head-quarters, not placed in revenue charge of a taluk ; and the chief or senior officer for the district in each of the departments of Medical Relief, Engineering and Education ;

(b) one non-official representative from each of the taluks in the district to be eventually elected by the members of the Taluk Board from among their body but on the first occasion to be appointed by Government on the recommendation of the Deputy Commissioner ; and

(c) such number as would make up the strength of the Board which strength, in the case of the Mysore District, was to be 30 and in the case of other Districts, 25 to be appointed by Government on the recommendation of the Deputy Commissioner, the Vice-President of the District Board being either one appointed by the Government or one elected by the members under authority conveyed by Government ;

(4) That the members of the Local Boards other than the *ex-officio* members should ordinarily hold their office for three years, and were, if otherwise qualified, eligible for re-election or re-appointment ;

(5) that the District Boards should meet not less than four times in the year, the Taluk Boards not less than six times in the year and the Union Panchayets not less than once a month ; and

(6) That the decision of the Local Boards on the questions coming before them should be by a majority of votes.

The contribution of the 76 per cent of the local cess on *abkari*, forest and other items, except land revenue, principally constituted this fund and this allotment was, in 1903, reduced from 76 per cent to 67 per cent to improve the resources of the Village School Fund. This fund was reserved for meeting special grants-in-aid to be made from time to time for local purposes. Grants from this fund were occasionally made for construction of wells and other local useful works, but they were not governed by any recognized principles. In 1898, however, Government directed that this Fund should be reserved for the construction of large bridges. Charges on account of Industrial Schools, Engineering School and

Local Funds
General.

the indigenous Hospital Establishment and a moiety of the Dasara Exhibition were also paid for from the Local Funds General. In 1908, rules were issued for regulation of the grants from this fund and the preparation of budgets therefor. The grant for works to be executed by Public Works Department was limited to Rs. 70,000 while the annual provision for making grants to the several District Boards for execution of urgent works was limited to Rs. 12,000. In connection with the improvement of Industrial Schools in the State and the Engineering School at Mysore, the charge on this account to the Local Funds General was restricted to Rs. 60,000 a year. In connection with the development of Local Self-Government, the Local Funds General as a separate fund was abolished from the 1st July 1917 and the 67 per cent of the cess on *abkari* and other items heretofore credited to it were assigned to the District Funds concerned and the Kolar Gold Fields Sanitary Board Fund. The charges heretofore met from the Local Funds General on account of industrial and other schools, the indigenous hospital and the Veterinary dispensaries and Dasara Exhibition were ordered to be borne from State Funds. The balance in favour of the Local Funds General at the end of the year 1916-17 was also credited to the District Boards and the Kolar Gold Fields Sanitary Board.

Development
of District
Funds.

Besides the allotment of 76 per cent of the local cess on land revenue and the receipts from ferries, sale of stray cattle and fines for cattle trespass, the income from District Fund property such as sale proceeds of trees, rents from buildings, markets, etc., accrued to the credit of District Funds. In part recoupment of the charges incurred for providing convenience by way of travellers' bungalows and musafir khanas, and cart-stands and markets, fees were also levied and credited to District

Funds. The income from tolls on roads maintained from District Funds was assigned to District Funds in the year 1893-94 and from the year 1895, the entire local cess levied thereon was also assigned. From 1896, a moiety of the proceeds from tolls at the frontier toll gates was allotted to District Funds. Fines levied under the Village Sanitation Regulation of 1898 and the rules thereunder for offences committed in rural parts were credited to District Funds. The collection from license fees and house tax in Unions also improved the District Fund revenue to some extent. The tax on vacant sites and *hittals* in Unions was also assigned to the District Funds. Prior to 1909, remission of local cess was automatically granted along with that of Land Revenue and other items on which cess was to be levied. The procedure having tended to cripple the resources of the local bodies just when they were pressed to provide for relief measures during distress, this practice was changed and it was ruled that local cess should in no case be remitted but might be postponed in special cases. During the year 1911-12, action was taken to amend the Local Boards Regulation so as to empower District Boards to levy a railway cess. The proposals were for the construction of branch railways by District Boards with the aid of funds raised by debenture loans. The Boards experienced considerable difficulty in raising loans as they were not in a position to guarantee the interest with their existing revenues. It was therefore enacted by Regulation V of 1914 that in addition to the ordinary local cess the Boards might levy a special cess not exceeding six pies in the rupee to be solely utilised in the construction of tramways and rail roads. In exercise of the powers conferred by the above Regulation, railway cess was, for the first time, imposed in the Kolar District during the year 1914-15 and brought in an income of Rs. 47,661 during that year.

All the District Boards except those of Bangalore and Hassan now levy railway cess. By a further amendment of the Local Boards Regulation, Panchayets were authorised to levy shop tax in addition to tax on houses. The items constituting the Local Funds General and Mohatarfa in rural parts were assigned to the District Fund in connection with the development of Local Self-Government in the State from the 1st July 1917.

The Local Boards and Village Panchayet Regulation VI of 1918 authorises the levy of all the taxes and fees enumerated above and empowers Local Boards to raise in addition a special cess for guaranteeing repayment of loans raised for specified purposes.

The levy of oil mill tax was abolished with effect from 1st July 1919 and the District Boards were advised of the desirability of restricting the exemptions granted to certain classes under the Mohatarfa Rules, so as to improve their resources. By Regulation III of 1921, further amending the Mysore Local Boards and Village Panchayets Regulation, 1918, the development of the economic condition of the District with special reference to Education, Agriculture and Industries and Commerce was included among matters which may be controlled or administered by the District Boards and they were also empowered to levy an Education Cess not exceeding one anna in the rupee on all items of revenue on which local cess is levied to be utilised solely for purposes of education. Education Cess is levied in all the Districts, except Kolar, Mysore and Kadur.

Proposed

The general order on the resolutions of the Local Self-Government Conference relating to Local Boards referred to above may be thus briefly summarized :—

Village Panchayets.—The Village Improvement Committees, which are now mostly in a moribund condition, will be abolished and a panchayet constituted for every village or

group of villages on a statutory basis. Each panchayet will consist of not less than 5 and not more than 12 members at least half of whom will be elected. The constitution of the panchayet will be so arranged as to secure the presence of village elders by nomination wherever convenient or necessary. The Chairman of the Panchayet will be nominated by Government in the initial stages, the right of election being conceded when the panchayets are well established and show satisfactory work. The functions of the panchayets will be classified into obligatory and optional, the former including village sanitation and communications and the latter all other items of work which promote the health, convenience or comfort of the inhabitants. Provision will be made for investing select panchayets with powers under the Village Courts and Tank Panchayets Regulations and Forest Panchayet Rules and also for the transfer to the Panchayets, at the discretion of Government, of the control over Muzrai institutions and supervision over village elementary schools. To enable the panchayets to function efficiently, they will be empowered to levy taxes on houses, shops, vacant sites and hittals, the present rural mohatarfa taxes being abolished. They may also levy at their option other taxes, cesses and fees for the satisfactory discharge of their functions. The Amildar will be invested with the powers of control, inspection and supervision of the panchayets in order to provide for close and efficient supervision over their working. He will be subject to the general orders of the Deputy Commissioner. To assist the Amildar in carrying on the administration of panchayets efficiently, an Inspector of Panchayets may be appointed for each taluk, for whose maintenance village panchayets will be required to contribute. One of the chief functions of the Inspector will be to help the panchayets in matters of sanitation and collection of revenues.

Taluk Boards.—As regards these institutions, they will be abolished in view of the facts that the setting up of panchayets in all rural areas with control over such essential items of work as sanitation and communications has further limited the already restricted scope of the work of these Boards and that the diminished finance of District Boards will not permit of the continuance of Taluk Boards as independent corporate bodies.

District Boards.—The removal of the intermediary agency of the Taluk Boards leaves the District Boards a free hand in developing the larger local interests in the districts, while securing to them greater control over their finances and concentration of funds in their hands. As regards the constitution and functions of District Boards, the decisions of Government are chiefly to give them more scope to attend to all the district, taluk, inter-taluk and inter-village service under communications, medical relief and sanitation; to permit them to appoint chief officers to help the Presidents in order to ensure that the functions of the Boards are efficiently administered; to empower Deputy Commissioners to inspect the offices of the Boards, etc., with a view to secure their proper working; to dispense with the representation of Municipal Councils on District Boards and to extend franchise to women to vote at the elections to District Boards.

Items of
Expenditure
from District
Funds,

The resources of District Funds having been considerably improved by the allotment from local cess and assignment of mohatarfa collected in non-panchayet areas, district roads which were originally constructed from general revenues were transferred from time to time to the District Funds for up-keep.

The maintenance of travellers' bungalows, musafir-khanas, hospitals and dispensaries also devolved on District Funds and all measures calculated to promote the health and convenience of the public are carried out from District Funds. Charges in respect of Local Fund Dispensaries, except the pay of the presiding medical officer and the cost of European medicines, are also paid from District Funds; but in the case of dispensaries situated within municipal limits, the Municipal Funds generally contribute one-third of the cost, the District Funds contributing the remaining two-thirds. Scholarships for the training of midwives and pupils in medical schools and the cost of establishments maintained in the Central Audit and Administrative Offices used to be debited to District Funds, but these charges were, later

on, ordered to be met from general revenues. Midwives are generally paid from District Funds, the Municipal Funds contributing a half, one-third or the entire charge in certain cases. The Local Boards are also required to provide for relief measures during times of distress or famine. Under Regulation VI of 1918, the Local Boards may also provide for the following charges at their discretion :—

- (1) Irrigation and Drainage Works.
- (2) Demonstration Farms.
- (3) Encouragement of Industries.
- (4) Promotion of Agricultural or Economic Improvement of the District concerned.

The expenditure on account of vaccinators in taluks which had hitherto been met from State Funds was debited to District Funds from 1st July 1918. The income and expenditure of the District Boards during the year 1923-24 amounted to Rs. 26,80,485 and Rs. 24,28,634, respectively.

At first very little was being spent from District Funds on conservancy and sanitation of villages. A small beginning in this direction was, however, made in 1891-92 when a few sweepers were employed for some large villages. The measure developed considerably during the next few years. The promulgation of the Village Sanitation Regulation in 1898 and the Rules thereunder and the constitution of Panchayets from 1904-05 considerably added to the expenditure under this head. Sanitary and Assistant Sanitary Inspectors have also been appointed to look after the sanitation of villages. The Village Sanitation Rules are introduced generally into all the villages containing 25 houses or more and specially into all the villages dealt with under the Malnad Improvement Scheme and also into all villages

Conservancy
and Sanita-
tion.

in close proximity to populous towns or important Railway Stations.

Work
Inspectors
and Sanitary
Inspectors.

All District Fund works were executed by the Public Works Department from 1879. In 1891, however, petty works, which an ordinary *mestri* or artificer could be expected to satisfactorily execute, were transferred to the charge of the Revenue Officers; with the gradual increase in the number of minor works to be executed, Government found it necessary to sanction the appointment of separate Work Inspectors. These Work Inspectors have been replaced by trained Sanitary and Assistant Sanitary Inspectors who are now entrusted both with the supervision of public works and the sanitation of villages. The greater portion of the District Funds are, however, spent by the Public Works Department on repairs of roads and other public works of importance. The question of appointing a separate Local Fund Engineering establishment was recently under consideration, but it has been decided that it is neither desirable nor feasible to entertain this establishment at present.

District
Board
Railways.

The Kolar District Board raised a loan under Government guarantee and partly financed the construction of the Railway line from Bowringpet to Chik-Ballapur. The District Board and the Government own the line in equal partnership and the line is worked by the State Railway Department. The Shimōga and Chitaldrug District Boards have also raised loans for the construction of feeder railway lines. The Mysore District Board were authorised to raise a loan of Rs. 8,00,000 by issue of debentures to finance the construction of the Nanjan-gud-Chamrajnagar Railway. The loan has been successfully floated and the construction work has been taken in hand. Further particulars regarding these railways are available in Volume III, Chapter X.

For the special sanitation of the Kolar Gold Fields, rules were prescribed in September 1899 and a special Local Board was constituted on 16th November 1899. This Board was independent of the Local Fund Board of the Kolar District and the area administered by this Board was excluded from the jurisdiction of the Local Fund Board of Kolar. The Sanitary Board consisted of seven members in the beginning with the Special Magistrate of the Gold Fields as the President. Later on in 1900, the Deputy Commissioner was appointed as Member and President of the Board and the Special Magistrate was appointed as Vice-President. The strength of the Board was gradually raised and it now stands at 18, seven being *ex-officio*, and eleven non-official members, of whom seven are nominated by the Mining Board and approved by the Government and the remaining four appointed by Government from amongst the rate-payers.

Kolar Gold
Fields
Sanitary
Board.

The position of this Board is unique. It is not a corporate body, but a statutory committee appointed by Government. In point of administration and correspondence, it is treated like a District Board. Its powers are regulated by the provisions of the Mines Regulation of 1906 and the rules issued by Government in this behalf. The Mining Board which is a Federal Committee of the Mining Companies working on the Fields has a preponderant representation on the Sanitary Board. The Deputy Commissioner of the Kolar District is the President of the Board and the Special Magistrate of the Kolar Gold Fields is appointed by Government as the Vice-President.

The Sanitary Board can levy taxes, rates or cesses for expenditure in as many ways as are authorised by the Municipal Regulation. In the beginning, however, the 7½ per cent of the local cess on land revenue items and the income from the sale of stray cattle, cattle pounds,

slaughter-houses and markets in the local area under the control of the Board was withdrawn from the Kolar District Fund Board and assigned to the Sanitary Board. The entire mohatarfa leviable in the Sanitary Board area was also assigned to the Sanitary Board specially. The Board constructed a new market and established cooly colonies for preventing over-crowding in the villages. The income of the Board is derived principally from house and mohatarfa taxes, fees from markets and slaughter-houses and rents from cooly colonies. The expenditure is mainly on repairs of roads and conservancy and sanitation.

Regulation
IX of 1911
and VI of
1918.

The Local Boards Regulation II of 1902 was amended by Regulation IX of 1911 whereby power was conferred on the District Boards to frame bye-laws for the regulation of markets, slaughter-houses, cart-stands, hotels, burial and burning grounds, etc., and for the control of unwieldy traffic on roads.

During the year 1916-17, rules were framed for the election of Vice-Presidents for the District Boards. With a view to give effect to the Government Order of November 1916 on the scheme of Local Self-Government as regards Local Boards and to consolidate the existing law thereon, the Mysore Local Boards and Village Panchayets Regulation VI of 1918 was passed on 25th June 1918.

The number of members on District and Taluk Boards is increased so as to provide for an elected majority in all District and Taluk Boards, giving independent powers to Taluk Boards subject only to a general control by the District Board and allotting separate funds to Taluk Boards. It also provides for establishment of Village Panchayets and authorises them to undertake :—

(a) The ordinary maintenance of roads, sanitation, water-supply, drainage ;

(b) Improvement works as specified in the Village Improvement Scheme ; and

(c) All other communal work connected with Education and Irrigation.

The work connected with economic development in the Districts which was hitherto being attended to by the District and Taluk Progress Committees was transferred during the year 1919-20 to the District and the Taluk Boards and the Local Board and Village Panchayet Regulation of 1918 was suitably amended with this purpose in view.

Besides the Kolar Gold Fields Sanitary Board constituted for the special sanitation of the mining area under the Mysore Mines Regulation, there were, during 1924-25, eight District Boards and 76 Taluk Boards, constituted under the Local Boards and Village Panchayets Regulation, the number of Village Panchayets being 817.

At the end of 1923-24, there were 816 Village Panchayets, which superseded the Union Panchayets constituted under the Local Boards Regulation II of 1902. They are defined statutory bodies having independent powers of taxation and budgets of their own.

The Vice-Presidents of District and Taluk Boards are elected as far as possible and rules defining their duties have been framed.

Power is also given to the Village Panchayet to levy a cess for any of the above purposes and to commute, with the consent of the person concerned, the payment of such cess into a contribution of labour not exceeding eighteen days' labour in a year.

To afford facilities in villages for sinking drinking water wells, large grants were specially made by Government from the year 1914-15. The villagers generally contribute one-third of the cost but in exceptional cases where, owing to the poverty of the people or other

Rural Water-supply.

sufficient cause such as the well being required for the benefit of the depressed classes, the entire amount of contribution cannot be raised, discretion is given to the Presidents of District Boards to relax the condition. Two thousand five hundred and thirty-seven wells were in all constructed and completed up to the end of the year 1924-25. The amount spent on wells up to this period was Rs. 7,44,105.

SECTION 7—STATE LIFE INSURANCE.

Object and
scope of the
scheme.

With a view to confer upon the members of the subordinate public service a substantial benefit over and above the ordinary pensions and gratuities grantable under the rules in force, a system of State Life Insurance was inaugurated on the 1st December 1891. It enables public servants, unable to save largely from their income, to secure for themselves or their families a certain substantial provision in the future in return for small payments spread over a series of years, and is thus calculated to raise the general tone of the public service. Insurance was made compulsory on all persons entering the permanent pensionable service of the State, after the introduction of the system, from the date of their entering the service, and in the case of those entering the service before 20 years and six months of age, from the date of completing 20 years and six months of age. In the case of officers holding permanent appointments on the date of introduction of the rules, insurance was optional and they were allowed to avail themselves of the option till the end of June 1894 and the time was subsequently extended till the 30th June 1897. Admission is made after a medical examination. In the case of officers of other Governments employed in the State, insurance is subject to the consent of the Governments lending them. No officer whose age exceeds 45 years or whose pay is below Rs. 10 is eligible for insurance.

Ten per cent of the pay of the insured is recovered every month as premium and credited to Government in consideration of which an endowment bonus (according to a scale fixed by Government) is payable from the revenues of the State on the insured completing 55 years of age or, at his death, if earlier. From the year 1911-12 officials were allowed to insure for larger amounts by paying more than ten per cent of their pay if they wished to do so, but without exceeding the premium limit of Rs. 50 a month.

The business connected with the scheme is managed by a Committee with the Comptroller as Secretary. Committee of Management.

The scheme was extended to the non-official public in Mysore and the rules came into actual operation in July 1916. This scheme provides for taking out policies of four classes, *viz.*,— Extension of the scheme to non-officials.

- (1) Whole life,
- (2) Whole life by limited payment,
- (3) Endowment, and
- (4) Children's endowment.

This scheme is kept separate from the scheme for the Mysore Government Officials; but both the schemes are managed by the same Committee.

Only persons who are natives of the Mysore State or are permanent residents therein are eligible for insurance in the Public Branch. Government officials are not eligible under the rules unless they are insured for the maximum amount admissible under the rules of the official branch or desire to have such policies as are not provided for by those rules. Persons eligible to insure.

From the commencement to the end of 1923-24, 4,132 proposals for an assurance of Rs. 46,74,800 were accepted in the Public Branch. Total number of Policies.

Valuation of Insurance Fund.

The State Life Insurance Fund is valued every five years by competent Actuaries and the last valuation for the quinquennium ending 30th June 1918 disclosed that the Fund was sound and well managed and a R. B. A. of 1·5 per cent on the sum assured for every year premium paid has also been declared. The valuation for the quinquennium ending 30th June 1923 is now in the hand of the Actuary and his report is awaited.

Results of the working of the Scheme.

The results of working of the scheme to the end of June 1924 were :—

Number of policies issued	...	33,523	
Amount assured including R. B.			
Addition of 1912	...	Rs. 2,31,30,256	10 0
Number of effective policies	...	24,447	
Amount assured, including R. B.			
Addition of 1912	...	Rs. 1,80,39,009	4 0
Number of policies lapsed and discharged	...	9,076	
Amount due thereon, with R. B.			
Addition of 1912	...	Rs. 50,91,247	6 0
Balance at the credit of the Fund.		Rs. 63,27,699	12 11

Family Pension Fund.

In March 1911, Government sanctioned a scheme for starting a Family Pension Fund as an adjunct to the State Life Insurance Scheme. This Scheme enables State Officials to secure at their death pensions to their dependents for whole life or for a term. There were, on the 30th June 1924, 11 contributions for an aggregate monthly pension of Rs. 290. The balance on the 30th June 1923 of the Branch was Rs. 5,669-10-3.

State Provident Fund.

During the year 1914-15, Government sanctioned the formation, with effect from 1st July 1915, of a State Provident Fund, open to all officers in permanent pensionable and non-pensionable posts under Government or under Local or Municipal Boards. Subscription

to this Fund is optional, except in the case of permanent officers of Government entering the service after 1st July 1915, who are unable to insure their lives in the State Life Insurance on even a part of their pay owing to over-age or certified ill-health.

The Provident Funds Regulation IX of 1916 which was passed on 22nd December 1916 exempts the nominee of a subscriber and his widow or widows and children and, in the absence of nomination and failing widow or widows and children, any persons entitled, under the rules of the fund, on the death of the subscriber, to the sum at his credit if the sum does not exceed Rs. 1,000 from the trouble and expense of producing a probate or succession certificate. As the fund is intended mainly for the benefit of the subscriber's family, the money is protected from attachment. Regulations and Rules.

The State Life Insurance Regulation IV of 1917 was passed on 20th July 1917 to avoid delay, trouble and expense involved in obtaining a certificate of succession in cases where the insured dies without nominating any person and the amount involved does not exceed Rs. 1,000. Subsequently in 1921, the limit was further raised to Rs. 2,000. This Regulation also absolves the State Life Insurance Committee from liability if any error is committed and payment made to a wrong party.

The rules relating to the State Life Insurance, Family Pension Branch of the State Life Insurance and the Provident Fund are separately printed and are available to the public for information.

SECTION 8—ARMY.

The ancient military force of the country consisted of irregular foot variously armed, but principally with matchlocks and pikes; these men, trained from their infancy according to their measure of discipline to Pre-Rendition
Period ;
Ancient
Military
Force of
Mysore.

military exercises, were most of them also cultivators of the soil, but the vacant part of the year had usually been allotted to military enterprise, and when the circumstances of their respective chiefs offered nothing more important, these restless habits led them to private depredation. It was necessary that men of these propensities should either be constantly restrained by the presence of a large military force, or be made by proper employment to feel an interest in the stability of the Government. Haidar Ali had employed large bodies of these men in his garrisons and armies. Tipu Sultān had diminished their numbers for an increase of his regular infantry; but neither of these chieftains steadily pursued any systematic plan on this important subject.

System under
Dewan
Purnaiya's
administra-
tion.

Under Purnaiya, a small but select body of cavalry, infantry and peons was collected from the ruins of the Sultān's army. The system adopted by Purnaiya was to engage in the service of the State at least one individual from each family of the military; to respect the ancient usages of their several districts with regard to the terms on which peons were bound to military service; in all practical cases to assign waste lands in lieu of one half of their pay according to the prevailing usage of ancient times. Their local duties were defined to consist in taking their easy tour of guard in the little forts or walled villages to which they were attached; and in being ready at all times to obey the calls of the officers of police.

The origin of
the present
Mysore Army,
the Silahdars.

The third article of the Mysore Treaty of 1799 provided that, in the event of hostile operations becoming necessary for the protection of either the company's or the Mysore territories, the Maharaja should contribute towards the increased charges a reasonable amount, as determined by the Governor-General with reference to the net revenues of the State.

During the Mahratta war, a body of the Mysore Silahdar Horse operated in 1802 and 1803 with General Wellesley's army. The levies had been increased for this purpose, and on the return of the troops, the disbandment was gradually effected. The whole expenditure incurred by the Mysore State in connection with the Mahratta war amounted to a little less than five lakhs of Star Pagodas.

In consideration of this auxiliary help, a supplementary treaty was entered into in January 1807 whereby all pecuniary claims under the third article of the Treaty of 1799 were remitted with retrospective effect, the Maharaja being required in future to maintain a body of 4,000 effective horse (numbering about 500 Bargeer and the rest Silahdars), ready to serve with the British Army whenever required, the British Government bearing the charge of batta for service in the field out of the country. It was also agreed that the force should be increased when required by the British Government, the latter paying a fixed sum, with batta, for each extra horseman.

The Mysore Horse or Silahdars, on the assumption of the country in 1831, were avowedly disorganized, but have since then improved greatly. They were held in great repute by the people, and the Force has opened to numbers of Mussalmans (the former descendants of Tipu Sultān's relations) and Mahrattas (the remote offspring of Mahratta horsemen) a service which is highly acceptable, in consequence of the ranks containing members of the best families in the State and because the Regimentdars being themselves Indian gentlemen, there was an identity of interest from the highest to the lowest grades.

Condition in
1831 and
subsequently.

At first the Local Military Force was placed under the Superintendent of the Bangalore Division who, it

was considered, would be able to give sufficient time to the supervision of the force without prejudice to his ordinary duties, but this arrangement was very soon changed and a Military Assistant, who was of the rank and drew the pay of a Superintendent, was appointed specially for the management of the Local Force.

Condition in
1854-55.

Sir Mark Cubbon, in his report on the Administration of Mysore, 1854-55 to 1855-56, has stated that the seven Regiments of Irregular Cavalry, called the Silahdar Horses, consisting of 2,757 horse, were available for service beyond the frontier at any time the British Government required them. A small detachment of the Silahdars was attached to the establishment of Lord Dalhousie, the Governor-General, when on the Nilgiri Hills, and gave satisfaction to His Excellency.

Distribution
of the Force.

The cavalry was distributed at places which afforded the greatest facilities for procuring forage and the infantry at stations occupied by permanent offices and treasuries. The Superintendents of Divisions availed themselves, at their discretion, of the services of these troops for treasure escorts and in aid of the police, reporting the same to the Military Assistant to the Commissioner. During the year 1865-66, the strength of the Silahdars was short of the complement by 150 men. During the year 1866-67, the vacancies amounted to 274 which is nearly equal to the strength of a Silahdar Regiment. In June 1867, advantage was taken of this circumstance to disband one regiment, the cost of which was made available in raising the pay of the men of the other six regiments.

The Chanda
Fund, etc.

The establishment of a "Chanda Fund" from which the men were supplied with horses at a moderate cost was introduced from 1st May 1869. Its principal

features were that each Silahdar was to pay Rs. 1½ monthly towards the Fund in consideration of receiving from it Rs. 200 towards the purchase of a remount, on the death or rejection of his horse. These were afterwards altered in favour of the system in force in the Bengal Cavalry, with Stable and Stallation Funds in addition. Each Silahdar then paid Rs. 2 a month towards the Fund, from which fresh horses were maintained, and on the death or rejection of his horse, a Silahdar contributed but a month's pay, without reference to the value of the horse which he received. Precautions were, of course, adopted to prevent an undue advantage being taken of this benefit, and the working of the system was satisfactory, and popular among the Silahdars. The horses for the force were procured from Candahar and Persian dealers, or were the produce of the mares in the force by Government stallions.

As there were no circumstances calling for the continued maintenance of the full complement, the number of Silahdars from time to time varied from 2,000 to 4,000, according as they were required for field service or not. The number and efficiency of the force, however, gradually declined owing to low pay, bad horses and arms. No proficiency in horsemanship or in the use of arms was insisted upon while the office of Silahdar was almost regarded as hereditary. This state of things drew attention, and in 1872 a good deal was done to improve it, such as the adoption of a uniform, the arming of the men with a serviceable lance, providing lines for each regiment, which did not previously exist, the establishment of a Chanda Remount Fund, the raising of the pay of each man from Rs. 20 to 26 per month (one regiment of the service then maintained being reduced to provide funds for this most necessary measure), and lastly the introduction of a new and better system of accounts and payment. Nevertheless, much remained to be

accomplished to render the Silahdars even passably efficient as an arm of the local militia.

In 1873, detailed arrangements were ordered for rendering the Silahdars a compact body of efficient horsemen. In the first place, it was considered that the numerical strength of the force was much more than was called for by the requirements of the Province, and that 1,000 well disciplined and efficient men would serve all purposes during the times of peace. Orders were accordingly issued for the gradual reduction of the force, to consist in future of three regiments, the strength of each regiment being as noted in the margin. The reduction was effected by offering inducements to the men to retire. At the same time, a careful graduated scale of invalid pensions was made applicable to the Silahdars for the future, thereby giving greater stability to the service. The force was properly drilled, under the supervision of a specially appointed European Adjutant, aided by drill instructors from the Madras Light Cavalry. They were supplied with saddles of English pattern, and equipped with an improved style of sabre. Boat cloaks were supplied to both cavalry and infantry. In 1880-81, the strength of the force was 1,224, including 42 commissioned and 116 non-commissioned officers. About three-fifths of the Silahdars were Muhammadans and the remainder chiefly Mahrattas, with one-tenth Brahmins and Rajputs. The three regiments were stationed respectively at Bangalore, Mysore and Shimoga with detachments in certain taluks.

1 Regimentdar.
6 Risaldars.
6 Jamadars.
1 Sarzaffardar.
36 Daffedars.
1 Nishanbardar.
1 Trumpet Major.
6 Trumpeters.
1 Kettle Drummer.
330 Savars.
1 Farrier Major.
6 Farriers.
1 Foot mahaldar.
1 Sarpeshkar.
6 Peshkars.
4 Jhandavals.

Barr or
Infantry.

Since the time of Hyder Ali, these troops were the Regulars of Mysore, and very very useful men, well behaved and constantly employed in police duties; they

were held in esteem by the population who regarded their presence at the head-quarters of a taluk as a material source of protection. They guarded treasure and prisoners at the kasba of every taluk and furnished escort to the District head-quarters when necessary. Sir Mark Cubbon, in his report on the Administration of Mysore from 1854-55 to 1855-56, says that the four Barr Regiments made at a total of 1,679 rank and file.

In 1862-63, the Government ordered the reduction of the four battalions of the Barr from 2,161 to 2,000, the pay of the 1st class sepoy being raised from Rs. 6½ to 7 and the second class from 5½ to 6, with a corresponding increase for non-commissioned officers. In 1879, the 4th Regiment was disbanded as a measure of economy. The total strength in 1880-81 was 1,831 which included 67 commissioned and 213 non-commissioned officers.

The subsidiary treaty of Seringapatam concluded in 1799 provided in its second article for the maintenance, within the Territory bestowed upon the Maharaja of Mysore, of a British Force, for the defence and security of His Highness' dominions, on account of which the Mysore State was to pay a subsidy of 7 lakhs of Star Pagodas (24½ lakhs of rupees) annually, the disposal of this sum together with the arrangement and employment of the troops to be maintained by it being left entirely to the East India Company.

Origin of the
British Force
in Mysore.

Mysore was therefore garrisoned by troops of the Madras Army. The Mysore (Military) Division in 1881 included Coorg and the Nilgiri Hills. The head-quarters were at Seringapatam till 1809 since when they have been established at Bangalore. The only other Military Station occupied in Mysore in 1881 was that of the French Rocks, 4 miles north of Seringapatam; Harihar on the Tungabhadra was abandoned in 1865.

Commencing with Colonel Arthur Wellesley, afterwards the illustrious Duke of Wellington, the Mysore Division has been commanded by a distinguished line of Generals.

Bangalore
Rifle Volun-
teers.

A Volunteer Force was raised at Bangalore in 1868 and was popular with the young men of the large Anglo-Indian Community of the Station. Three companies were formed; in 1873 an additional company was raised in Mysore, and in 1875 a cadet company in Bangalore. The strength of the force in 1880-81 was 415 including cadets. There were 55 extra efficient and 122 efficient. The Corps was maintained at the cost of the Mysore Revenues till March 1881 but it was determined, on the Rendition, to keep it up in future as a charge on Imperial Funds.

Direction
subsequent to
the rendition
1881-1918.

The strength of the Military force to be employed in the Mysore State for the maintenance of internal order, etc., is governed by the conditions laid down in Article 10 of the Instrument of Transfer of 1881 which has been superseded by Article 9 of the Mysore Treaty of 1913. After the Rendition, the Military Department was administered by the Military Secretary who had also the charge of the Amrut Mahal Department. In 1895, the charge of Government Houses and entertainments was entrusted to the same officer who was also invested with the powers of the Secretary to Government in the Military Department. In 1897, these duties were divided between the Chief Commandant who was exclusively in charge of the Military Forces (including the Military Stores), and the Military Assistant to Government who controlled the Amrut Mahal, the Kunigal Stud Farm and the Government Houses in addition to his duties as Secretary to Government in the Military Department. The appointment of the Military Assistant was abolished in 1908 and that of the Military Secretary to His Highness the

Maharaja in March 1916. The Chief Commandant, Mysore State Troops, has now control over all the Mysore Military Forces and also the Kunigal Stud Farm while the Amrut Mahal Department has been transferred to the control of the Director of Agriculture since 1923. The Government houses and entertainments have been transferred to the Private Secretary to His Highness the Maharaja.

The Mysore Local Force in 1881 consisted of 3 regiments of Silahdar Cavalry and 3 regiments of Barr Infantry. The Mysore Local Force.

The Cavalry regiments were stationed at Bangalore, Mysore and Shimoga with detachments in the other districts. In 1883, a cavalry officer of the British Service was appointed as staff officer for the purpose of drilling the Silahdars and bringing them up to a higher standard of efficiency. Early in 1885, with the view of bringing the force as much as possible within the control of the European Officers for the purpose of inspection, drill and discipline, it was resolved to convert the three regiments into two and to locate one of them at Bangalore and one at Mysore. The Cavalry.

The origin of the Imperial Service Regiment, known since 1922 as the Mysore Lancers, has been thus referred to in the Dewan's address to the Representative Assembly in October 1889 :— Origin of the Mysore Lancers.

“ You are doubtless aware that the various native princes throughout India, including our own Maharaja, made offers some time back to re-organize and improve their Military Forces to place them at the disposal of the Imperial Government for active service with the regular armies of the Empire. These offers were well received in the spirit in which they were made. Major Mellis was deputed to control the work of re-organization and is expected shortly

to be in Mysore. The Mysore Army having, from various causes, been greatly reduced from time to time, the offer of His Highness the Maharaja was not merely to improve the existing forces but to raise and maintain a suitable new force. There is, in the State, excellent military material from which a very efficient force can be raised. In physique, the Mysorean is far superior to the average man of the plains and is specially noted for his endurance and hard work in distant countries and under the most trying conditions of climate and fatigue. The Bedar Infantry and the Mysore Cavalry, so well-known for their valour, were all drawn from warlike classes who are indigenous to the country and who will now, as of old, furnish excellent recruits for a new Army. Our climate places us in a better position than most other provinces for maintaining an excellent Cavalry, and with our well-known Amrut Mahal cattle, we possess exceptional advantages in the matter of transport."

The growth of
the Regiment.

The formation of a Regiment of Cavalry for Imperial Service, begun in 1889, was completed in the year 1891. The two regiments of Silahdars were broken up in 1892 and formed into two corps, one for Imperial and the other for Local Service. In order to permit of the former being brigaded with His Majesty's troops and kept in a constant state of efficiency for active service, it was stationed at Bangalore. It was armed with breach loading carbines, provided with camp equipage and a standing pony transport so as to be ready for immediate active service whenever called upon and, in matters of discipline, pay and equipment, it was made similar to His Majesty's Native Cavalry as far as possible.

These measures necessitated an annual addition to the military budget of about three-fourths lakh of rupees besides an initial extra expenditure of about $1\frac{1}{2}$ lakhs in 1892 on account of the purchase of transport ponies, camp equipage, saddlery, etc.

Pay, equip-
ment, etc.

The officers of the Mysore Lancers are paid between Rs. 70 and Rs. 300 per mensem according to their rank

(in addition to allowance) while the pay of the non-commissioned officers ranges between Rs. 35 and 51. The Sowars are paid at the uniform rate of Rs. 31. In addition, non-commissioned officers and sowars are granted good conduct pay up to Rs. 4 and 3 respectively per month in accordance with a prescribed scale. The cost of equipment, saddlery, etc., has to be borne by the officer or sowar, but one suit of full dress uniform is supplied free.

The total strength of the Mysore Lancers at the end of the year 1923-24 was 553. Total strength.

The establishment of a separate Transport Service in connection with the Imperial Service Regiment was sanctioned in the year 1892-93. In April 1901, an independent Transport Corps for purposes of Imperial defence was organized with 300 carts and 700 ponies at an initial cost of five lakhs of rupees and a recurring maintenance charge of $2\frac{1}{4}$ lakhs. In January 1916, the strength of the Corps was fixed at 320 Carts (including 10 ambulance carts), 704 bullocks and 40 ponies consequent on the conversion of the pony corps into a bullock train. The sanctioned strength of the Corps on the 30th June 1924 consisted of 170 carts (including 10 ambulance carts), 324 bullocks and 86 ponies. Transport Corps.

The officers of the Mysore Transport Corps are paid between Rs. 60 and 250 including allowances and the non-commissioned officers and men are paid between Rs. 13 and 26 per month. Pay.

The Mysore Transport Corps consists of 10 commissioned officers and 315 non-commissioned officers and men. Strength of the Establishment.

The Local Service Regiment or the Mysore Horse as it is also called is meant for local service, escort, patrol and The Mysore Horse.

other duties in several parts of the State. It has its headquarters at Mysore and has detachments at Jagalur and Pavagada for road patrol and other duties. Detachments are sent annually to Bangalore to take part in the Royal Artillery practice camps. A detachment from this Regiment was sent to Delhi for the Coronation Durbar in 1903.

Pay, etc.

The officers of the Mysore Horse are paid between Rs. 60 and 300 including allowance. The pay of the non-commissioned officers ranges from Rs. 30 to 35 and the pay of a sowar is Rs. 28 per mensem.

Except the full dress uniform which is granted free, the officers and sowars, like those of the Mysore Lancers, have to bear the cost of equipment and saddlery.

Actual strength.

The actual strength of the Mysore Horse at the end of the year 1923-24 was 415.

The Barr or Infantry.

The Mysore Infantry consists of three regiments with head-quarters at Bangalore, Mysore and Shimoga and detachments in the other districts. The principal duty devolving on the Infantry is the guarding of the Huzur Treasury as well as the District and Taluk Treasuries all over the State.

As an inducement for service in the Infantry Regiments, Government have sanctioned the issue of free kit to all non-commissioned officers and men once in seven years at an average cost of Rs. 6,077.

Pay.

The commissioned officers of the Mysore Infantry are paid between Rs. 31 and 150 a month; while the pay of a non-commissioned officer ranges from 15 to 20 rupees. The sepoy are paid from Rs. 14 to 15 a month.

Actual strength.

At the end of the year 1923-24, there were 1,745 men in the Mysore Infantry.

The Military Stores located at Bangalore is entrusted with the preparation and issue of uniforms and all other equipments; portions of the Mobilisation stores of the Imperial Service Regiment as well as the Ammunition and Arsenal Stores are in charge of a Superintendent. The clothing and ornaments of all units are maintained in a thorough state of efficiency.

The Military Stores.

The Mysore Military Regulation, II of 1899, was passed on the 5th day of April 1899 with a view to amend the disciplinary law applicable to the Mysore Imperial Service Troops and it embodies rules for the punishment of crime in the Mysore Imperial Service Cavalry and Transport. The above Regulation was amended by Regulation V of 1900, IV of 1901, I of 1905, II of 1907, II of 1910, II of 1913, II of 1914 and VIII of 1918 as necessities arose therefor. With a view to enforce better discipline, portions of the Military Regulations were made applicable in the year 1915-16 to the Local Service Regiment and to the Infantry Regiments.

Regulations, Rules, etc.

The following Manuals and Standing Orders are in use in the Department :—

1. Chief Commandant's Office Manual.
2. Military Stores Manual.
3. Standing orders of the Military Department.
4. Standing orders of the Imperial Service Lancers.
5. Mysore Infantry.

There are two Riding Schools one at Bangalore and the other at Mysore.

Riding Schools.

Immediately war was declared in August 1914, the service of the Mysore Army and other resources of the State were offered for Imperial purposes. In September 1914, orders were received for mobilising the Imperial

Mysore and the great European war. The Imperial Service Lancers.

Service Lancers for service in Egypt. This Regiment consisting of 29 Officers, 444 non-commissioned officers and men with 526 horses, 49 mules and 132 followers, left Bangalore on the 13th October 1914 under the command of Regimentdar B. Chamaraj Urs Bahadur (now Lt.-Col. Sirdar Bahadur). The late Col. J. Desaraj Urs, C.I.E., M.V.O., accompanied the Regiment as the Representative of the Durbar. Twenty-two drafts of reinforcements aggregating Officers, 671 rank and file were despatched to the Field from time to time. In November 1915, this Regiment had three engagements with the enemy in the Suez Canal Zone and in November 1917 it took part in the attack on Gaza in Palestine. Letters from the Commander-in-Chief, Egypt, to His Excellency the Viceroy of India have testified to the noble manner in which the troops acquitted themselves on these occasions.

**Mysore
Transport
Corps.**

The Mysore Transport Corps was mobilised for active service in 1915. Six troops of the Corps consisting of 12 officers, 81 rank and file with 210 carts and 2 ambulance carts, 458 bullocks, 7 mules and 35 ponies under the command of Faizullah Khau were despatched in September 1915. To keep the Corps up to strength, 17 drafts of reinforcements consisting of 6 officers, 190 rank and file with bullocks were sent. The excellent work done by this unit in clearing the battlefields of Sanniyat and the Hai have been referred to with appreciation in his letters by the General Officer Commanding Force "D," Baghdad.

**Supply of
trained
horses, etc.**

Trained horses were supplied as required by the Imperial Government at special rates and horses were received and thoroughly trained and despatched. Similarly, ambulance carts were supplied from Mysore to East Africa, Aden, etc.

To meet the local and Imperial demands in regard to man power, a Central Recruitment Committee was constituted in the State. A Director of Recruiting was also appointed and district recruiting agencies were organized. Though the difficulties to be surmounted were great, nearly the required number of recruits (about 5,000) had been got by the time the Armistice was signed. The achievement of this result was in no small measure due to His Highness the Maharaja's stirring appeal addressed to the subjects of the State.

Recruitment
of men.

Colonel J. Desaraj Urs, C.I.E., M.V.O., was awarded the British rank of Honorary Lieutenant-Colonel by His Imperial Majesty the King-Emperor and Major B. Chamaraj Urs received the Order of British India, 1st class, with the title of Sirdar Bahadur. One officer was awarded the Military Cross. Two officers received the Order of British India, 2nd class, three others, the Indian Order--Order of Merit, 2nd class, 23 officers and men the Indian Distinguished Service Medal and three others the Indian Meritorious Service Medal. Two of the officers gained awards in the Order of the White Eagle of Serbia from His Majesty the King of Serbia, and a third was awarded the Cross of Kerageorge Serbia, 1st class, with swords. Twenty-two Mysore Officers were mentioned by name in Despatches, four of them being mentioned twice.

Distinctions
earned by
Mysore
Officers and
Men.

With a view to render Military Service sufficiently attractive, a scheme for the grant of lands to members of the Mysore Army was sanctioned on 12th September 1917. In order to be eligible for the concession, the soldier should have rendered approved military service. The extent of land that may ordinarily be granted to a soldier is from 8 to 45 acres of dry land or 3 to 20 acres of wet land; the lands are given free of upset price and on *shraya* tenure.

Grant of
Lands to
Military Men.

Military
expenditure.

The military expenditure during the year 1923-24 was Rs. 16,17,533 under the following heads:—

			Rs.
Head-quarters	75,768
Mysore Lancers	3,51,842
Mysore Horse	1,89,229
Mysore Infantry	3,68,320
Grass Farms	11,714
Mysore Transport Corps	1,66,017
Military Stores	7,222
Kunigal Stud Farm	70,620
Superannuation and retired allowances	1,32,944
Palace Military	2,00,000
Military Works	43,857
Total	16,17,533

SUCCESSION LIST OF CHIEF COMMANDANTS, MYSORE STATE TROOPS.

Name	Date of assuming charge	Remarks
Lieut.-Col. J. O. Traverse	25th Dec. 1881	Designated as Military Sec- retary and Officer Com- manding Mysore State Troops.
Col. A. C. Hay	27th Mar. 1883	
Lieut.-Col. J. O. Traverse	26th June 1883	
Col. A. C. Hay	12th Aug. 1883	
Captain R. G. Jones	24th Mar. 1886	
Col. A. C. Hay	11th June 1886	
Major A. H. Macintire	12th Mar. 1889	
Captain R. G. Jones	20th Jan. 1892	
Major A. H. Macintire	1st July 1892	
Lieut.-Col. J. Desaraj Urs	6th Jan. 1896	
Lieut.-Col. A. H. Macintire	6th April 1896	
Lieut.-Col. J. Desaraj Urs	20th Feb. 1897	
Major R. G. Jones	24th Aug. 1897	
Col. J. Desaraj Urs, C.I.E., M.V.O.	26th Aug. 1897	
Lieut.-Col. A. A. Jones	8rd Nov. 1914	In charge
Mr. R. Foottannah, B.A., B.L.	24th Aug. 1915	In charge
Col. J. Desaraj Urs, C.I.E., M.V.O.	12th Jan. 1916	
Lieut.-Col. B. Chamaraj Urs, Sirdar Bahadur.	1st July 1919	
Major J. A. W. Foottit, I.A.	10th Dec. 1923	

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CHAPTER IV

THE TECHNICAL DEPARTMENTS.

SECTION 1.—THE AGRICULTURAL DEPARTMENT.

History of State aid to Agriculture.

THE Government farm near the Lal-Bagh in Bangalore and the Government cinchona plantation on the Bababudan hills were both sold in the first year after the Rendition as they were failures. As a means of popularising improved agriculture in the State, the Government in 1882 made large grants of land near Bangalore to the Eurasian and Anglo-Indian Association on very favourable terms.

(a) From 1881
to 1885.

Owing to the imminence of the famine in 1885, some defects in the machinery for the collection and scrutiny of statistics, agricultural, vital and economic, were brought to notice and it was considered necessary to have at the head-quarters of Government an officer of standing and experience, who could “collect and deal with the statistical returns relating to the weather, the agriculture, the health and well-being of the people and thus secure the most prompt and accurate knowledge attainable of a probable failure of crops and of the extent and consequences of any failure that actually takes place.” Accordingly in 1886, a Director of Agriculture and Statistics was appointed, the office being combined with those of Inspector-General of Police and of Forests and Plantations, his duties being those above enumerated together with the promotion of experiments in agriculture and in the breeding of live stock. At the same time

(b) From 1886
to 1892 :
Director of
Agriculture
appointed.

Agricultural Inspectors trained in the Agricultural College at Saidapet, Madras, were appointed to each District.

(c) From 1892
to 1908 :
Appointment
of Agricultural
Chemist.

The Office of Director of Statistics and Agriculture continued till it was abolished in May 1892, when a special duty officer was appointed for compiling statistical information and for dealing with all returns and reports disposed of till then by the former officer. The work of experimental cultivation, cattle and pony breeding operations, however, remained under the Inspector-General of Forests. In March 1895, the special work connected with the compilation of statistical information devolved on the Revenue Secretariat. On the 25th January 1897, the office of Director of Statistics was again revived. It was combined with the office of Census Superintendent in July 1900 and was merged in the office of Revenue Commissioner in April 1904.

In 1893, the report of Dr. Voelcker on the improvement of Indian Agriculture was published by the Government of India ; and this as well as the final report of Dr. Leather, Agricultural Chemist to the Government of India, (issued in 1897-1898) had some influence in shaping the agricultural policy of the State. In December 1898, a full-time Agricultural Chemist was appointed for a period of five years for the systematic examination of the soils in all parts of the State, the adoption of measures for the removal of insect and other pests, the introduction of improved methods of cultivation generally, the revival of decaying industries and other allied purposes. In 1902, the Chemical Laboratory was practically completed and the investigation of plant diseases and insect pests continued, among other duties, to engage the attention of the Agricultural Chemist. In the address to the Representative Assembly for 1903, Sir P. N. Krishna Murthi, the then Dewan, reviewed the whole question of agricultural improvement and announced that

Dr. Lehmann, who had been granted an extension of service for another five years, would direct his attention only to those points which would be of help to the agriculturists. In 1905-1906, an experimental farm consisting of about 30 acres, near the Hebbal village, in the Bangalore taluk, was established, and it has been utilised to furnish results of practical value to the agriculturists. Dr. Lehmann also made experiments in sugar making and claimed to have demonstrated the practicability of greatly improving the quality and quantity of the yield. In April 1908, the Government having reviewed the circumstances connected with the appointment of Dr. Lehmann and the results of his work for about ten years, decided not to renew Dr. Lehmann's engagement but to secure, if possible, the services of a practical agriculturist, whose attention would be devoted to field work and to the conduct and organization of experimental farms on lines appealing to the interest and co-operation of the cultivators of the country. Arrangements were simultaneously made for the continuation of work in the Laboratory.

Dr. Coleman, whose services were engaged by the State in 1903-1904, entered on his duties as Mycologist and Entomologist in January 1908. He devoted his attention to the study of a number of important insect pests and fungus diseases of cultivated plants which were doing great damage to crops. In October 1908, Government sanctioned the nucleus of a staff for Mycological and Entomological work and its services were used to increase the field of investigation and carry out practical remedial measures. The results of the most striking practical importance were those obtained with reference to *Kolerōga* of the Areca palm, a disease which has been responsible for damage amounting to several lakhs of rupees per annum and an insect pest known as the

(d) 1908 to
1912 :
Appointment
of Mycologist
and Entomo-
logist.

Kambli hula, which does serious damage to early crops in certain dry areas of the State.

Re-organiza-
tion of the
Department.

On the retirement of Dr. Lehmann in October 1908, Dr. Coleman was placed in 1913-1914 in charge of the combined Offices and Laboratories of the Agricultural Chemist and the Mycologist and Entomologist. He continued in these duties till May 1912, when he was appointed Director of Agriculture. To relieve congestion of work in the office consequent on the increase in correspondence and accounts, Government in 1911-1912 sanctioned an addition to the clerical establishment. The formation of an Agricultural School in July 1913 in connection with the Hebbal Farm necessitated an increase of staff. In February 1914, the Department was reorganized at an additional cost of Rs. 64,252 per annum, with a view to enable it to co-operate more largely with the agricultural population of the State and to stimulate in a greater degree all healthy activities calculated to promote their prosperity. In the words of Sir Horace Plunkett, this was an attempt "to build a system of State aid upon a foundation of voluntary effort."

Work of the
re-organized
Department.

The work of the re-organized Department was classified under the following three main heads:—

- I. Direction and Statistics.
- II. Scientific and experimental work—

- (1) Agricultural.
- (2) Chemical.
- (3) Biological.
- (4) Educational.

- III. Practical work in association with the people.

As regards statistics, the Agricultural Department was to co-operate with the Revenue Department in collecting

accurate information in estimating the quantity and value of the annual production, in issuing reports in respect of special crops and in periodically bringing under quantitative examination the agricultural activities of the people of the State. The work of the Agricultural, Chemical and Biological sections in head II above related to the scientific and experimental work conducted in the Farm and the Laboratory. Government also approved of the general line of work and the programme proposed by Dr. Coleman.

Regarding the work under agricultural education, the Inspector-General of Education was requested to co-operate with the Director of Agriculture in formulating a scheme for practical education. In June 1913 an Agricultural School at the Hebbal Farm was started with a view to train the sons of raiyats in both theoretical and practical agriculture. The course to start with was one of two years but it was subsequently raised to three years. The first Diploma examination, since the extension of the course to three years, was held in May 1923. A short course in Vernacular was also organised for the benefit of the land-holders and raiyats. Through the munificence of Mr. Ugre Gowda of Chikkanahalli who provided a fine building and an endowment of Rs. 25,000, the first vernacular agricultural school was started in August 1916 and opened by His Highness the Yuvaraja. Towards the support of the school, the Government sanctioned an annual grant of Rs. 1,200 for two years. There were thus three grades of agricultural education in the State :—

Agricultural
Education.

(1) the Hebbal School imparting higher education in English.

(2) the newly started vernacular school at Chikkanahalli, known as the "Sri Krishnarajendra Vyavasaya Dharma Patasala," giving a somewhat lower grade of training, and

(3) the Rural science class sanctioned in Government Order No. 5065-79—Agri. 130-13-6, dated 22nd March 1916 which aims at combining some agricultural training with elementary education.

Laboratory
and
Insectary.

Scholarships are being granted to the students studying in the Hebbal Agricultural School, and there is a good library attached to the school. The school at Chikkana-halli is serving as a small centre for the spreading of knowledge of improved agriculture and as an out-agency of the Agricultural Department. It maintains a branch implement Depôt; it raises in its farm seeds of improved varieties for supply to local raiyats; it demonstrates improved methods; and it lends out improved implements. Rural science instruction is carried on in the schools situated at Hunsmaranahalli, Varthur, Kyata-sandra and Devarayasamudra.

The principal items of work falling under main head III are as follows:—

- (1) The formation and working of Agriculture Associations.
- (2) The formation and development of Co-operative Societies for Agricultural purposes.
- (3) Stimulating the growth of commercial crops.
- (4) Stimulating the improvement of production in area, quantity and quality.
- (5) Stimulating the improvement of agricultural stock.

For the conduct of research and experimental work, the Department has a well-equipped Laboratory and Insectary at Bangalore and Experimental Farms at Hebbal in the Bangalore District, Babbur in the Chitaldrug District, Marathur in the Shimoga District, and Nagenhalli in the Mysore District.

Results of
experiments
conducted in
the several
Farms.

The most interesting and valuable work on the Hebbal Farm was that of testing on a field scale of the ragi varieties produced by the Botanical section. Of the

nine new varieties under test, all of them except one have given a higher yield of both grain and straw than local *Hullubele* while 5 of them gave yield between 10 per cent and 20 per cent more grain. Another interesting result was that obtained with the use of ammonium sulphate as a manure for ragi. This has led to the increased yield over plots manured with cattle manure alone of 50 per cent and has given an increased profit of Rs. 23 per acre. As similar results with this manure have been obtained for three successive years, it may be safely assumed that ammonium sulphate can be profitably used as a manure in many of our ragi areas.

Experiments with plantains commenced in the Bahbur Farm show that the so called Salem (Poova) variety is by far the best suited to the locality, due to the marked alkalinity of the soil. Experiments in the cultivation of mulberry have proved quite successful, showing that there are quite promising possibilities for the development of sericulture.

The most interesting individual feature of the work in the Nagenahalli Farm was the trial of the two new varieties of paddy obtained from the paddy breeding station at Coimbatore. These showed extraordinary uniformity and gave quite a good yield. The experiments on paddy manuring also showed that a combination of oil-cake and superphosphate is decidedly profitable, while superphosphate alone was not.

The reorganization of 1913-14, while strengthening all branches of departmental activities, provided chiefly for a great extension of work on the agricultural side. Provision was made for at least one representative of the department in each District of the State, an Agricultural Inspector whose duty it was to supervise the demonstration of tested improvements on the lands of raiyats and land-holders. The District Inspector was placed under

Administra-
tive agency.

the control of two senior officers, the Deputy Director with head-quarters at Bangalore and the Assistant Director with head-quarters at Shimoga. It is one of the chief duties of these officers to get into close touch with all District and Taluk organizations which have for their object the improvements of the economic condition of the people. In addition to the Inspectors, a sufficient number of Fieldmen are appointed for work in the Districts. Their work consists more or less of carrying out the routine part of demonstration work, such as demonstrating the use of improved ploughs, economic transplantation of paddy, etc.

Creation of Live Stock Section and amalgamation of Civil Veterinary Department, 1920.

A Live Stock Expert was appointed in the year 1920 under the control of the Director to investigate questions relating to the improvement of live stock in the State. The control of the Civil Veterinary Department was also transferred from the Revenue Department to the Agricultural Department during the year. Government in their order dated 13th August 1923 directed the transfer of the Amrit Mahal Department to the Live Stock expert subject to the control of the Director of Agriculture.

Functions of the Live Stock Expert.

The main items of work attended to in the Live Stock Section are dairy work at Hebbal, breeding experiments and feeding experiments on the Rayankere Palace Dairy Farm the control of which was graciously entrusted to the Live Stock Expert by His Highness the Maharaja in November 1920, sheep breeding experiments in the sheep farms and demonstration of improved methods of clipping and dipping sheep. The farms are not however run on commercial lines, but are intended to serve as experimental farms for improving the sheep breeding industry in the State. A sheep breeding Association was formed in the Kolar District during the year 1922-23 for developing the sheep breeding industry.

As regards the results of experiments so far conducted, it may be stated that the average milk production per animal in the Rayankere dairy farm increased by 25 per cent. The production of half bred Holstein stock has continued and at the end of the year 1923-24 there were 53 half bred Holstein heifers on the Farm. Three of these have already been put to the bull and it is anticipated that within another 2 years definite results as regards the effect of this cross should be apparent.

The average cost of the Department during each of the succeeding years (up to 1918-19) after the reorganization of the Department in 1913-14 was Rs. 1,60,090. The expenditure increased to Rs. 3,56,535 during the year 1923-24.

Cost of the
Department.

In connection with the Department, a library is maintained containing over 3,000 works of reference and 6,500 bulletins and 1000 reports. Eighty-four Indian and foreign periodicals bearing on agriculture and live stock are subscribed for or are received by way of exchange. The use of the library is open to those interested in agriculture. With a view to aid them, a number of useful books have been set apart for lending the same to them. A special printed catalogue has also been issued for their benefit. An increasing number of agriculturists are availing themselves of the opportunities thus afforded them, some 255 books being lent out in 1923-24. Information relating to agriculture and live stock is also furnished by the Department to those desiring it on application.

Agricultural
Laboratory
and
Information.

A conference of all the officers of the District is annually held in the month of May for the consideration of various questions affecting the smooth working of the Department and to enable those belonging to the Department to exchange thoughts with each other.

Departmental
Conference.

SECTION 2.—DEPARTMENT OF INDUSTRIES
AND COMMERCE.

Policy prior
to 1913.

Prior to 1913, there was no separate Department of Industries and Commerce in the State. This does not mean that the industrial development of the State received no attention from Government prior to that date. As a matter of fact, they recognised the necessity for rendering State aid to enterprising capitalists or registered Companies who came forward to organise business in the State. Various industrial activities were actually waged, the form of Government help being chiefly confined to the purchase of shares in the Companies established on a sound commercial basis and to the advancing of loans for the purchase of machinery on easy terms. There was, however, a recognised policy or programme of industrial expansion and a separate agency to carry out the programme.

Organization
of Department,
1913-1917.

The need for the erection of a separate Department for dealing with matters relating to Industries and Commerce was emphasised by the development of the work of the Economic Conference which was formed in 1911. The Government accordingly ordered the establishment of a separate Department in January 1913 with a view to stimulate industrial activity in the State. The Department was placed under a qualified officer designated the Director of Industries and Commerce, with a small subordinate staff to assist him. The principal functions of the Director were defined as follows:—

(1) assisting private individuals by advice, loans or in any other manner considered necessary to enable them to start industries and new business concerns, such as the installation of mills, presses, irrigation and pumping plants, oil presses, rice milling machinery, etc.

(2) furnishing as far as possible, free of cost, estimates, schemes, prospectuses, articles of association, etc., to private

capitalists and also to bodies of persons anxious to start Joint Stock industrial or trade concerns.

(3) experimental installations in industries and manufactures at the cost of either Government or private individuals. such as sugar cane plants, lathes for wood turning, silk-reeling, etc.

(4) collection and maintenance of correct statistics of Industries and Commerce for the whole State as well as for important trade centres, industrial survey, formation of a central industrial depôt, a museum of industrial machinery and commercial products and an information bureau and study of markets for Mysore products.

With a view to encourage the use of machinery for agricultural and industrial purposes and to stimulate the growth and expansion of industries dealing with agricultural produce, Government sanctioned a scheme for the grant of loans for industrial purposes in the year 1913. In February 1916, they laid down their policy in regard to State aid to industries, indicating generally the lines on which they were prepared to help industries. In particular, they undertook to pioneer industries if the following conditions were satisfied, *viz.*,—

Facilities for the promotion of industries.

(1) That preliminary investigations conducted with a view to test the financial prospects of the industry should indicate that *prima facie* the industry can be established with success in Mysore.

(2) That the industry was such as would help the utilisation and development of the natural resources of the State or be likely to increase the wealth and well-being of the people.

(3) That the financial position of Government should permit of such an experiment being tried without resort to borrowed funds for the purpose and that the magnitude of the operations should not be so large as to cause embarrassment in case of failure.

During the first four years, 1913 to 1917, the Department undertook the investigation of several industries.

Industrial progress between 1913-17.

It furnished advice and assistance to various people of the State and stimulated to a considerable extent private industrial enterprise, chiefly in connection with the use of machinery for dealing with agricultural products. The Department itself undertook the manufacture of sandalwood oil on a commercial scale, a weaving factory was established and a few experimental industries, such as power-driven crushing mills, jaggery manufacture, etc., were started. It was also decided to start the manufacture of soap and buttons on a commercial scale, under departmental control. With a view to create banking facilities for the development of trade and industries within the State by utilizing local capital as far as possible, Government, accepting the recommendation of the Economic Conference, helped in the formation of a State-aided Bank called, "The Bank of Mysore," and sanctioned certain concessions recommended by the Conference (*Vide* Volume IV, Chapter V). As regards Commercial works, a quarterly statement of rail-borne trade statistics was published by the Department. An industrial survey was undertaken at the instance of the Industries and Commerce Committee of the Economic Conference. A central sales Depôt was organised at Bangalore with a view to develop the Arts and Crafts of the State. A Chamber of Commerce was brought into existence. A scheme for forming a central Industrial and Commercial Museum, with similar museums in Districts, was also sanctioned. The Department encouraged enquiries from merchants and gave them advice and assistance when required. Liberal concessions were offered to merchants to travel abroad and collect information of commercial value. Steps were also taken for the development of industrial, technical and commercial education in the State. A special officer was appointed for the investigation of Forest industries. Arrangements were made to obtain assistance from the Indian Institute

of Science in dealing with a few chemical and mineral industries. A local Committee of Research was also appointed for conducting experiments on a small scale.

In August 1917, the Department was reorganised, the main features of the reorganisation being as follows:—

Reorganization of the Department in 1917.

(1) A separate branch was constituted under the administration of the Director to deal with questions relating to commercial development in the State and an officer designated Deputy Director of Commerce was placed in immediate charge of this branch of work with an Assistant Director and a number of Commercial Probationers.

(2) All the activities necessary for the proper development of industries and commerce in the State were classified under ten groups, *viz.*,—

- (i) Organisation;
- (ii) Ordinary industries;
- (iii) Large industries;
- (iv) Forest industries;
- (v) Chemical and mineral industries;
- (vi) Agricultural minor industries;
- (vii) Practical education and workshops;
- (viii) Joint Stock, co-operative and partnership enterprises;
- (ix) Development of commerce and
- (x) Miscellaneous, such as formation of industrial suburbs, etc., and the subjects which should receive special attention under each group were indicated.

(3) A revised scale of establishment was provided for the ordinary work of the Department including that required for the installation and supervision of machinery set up by private industrialists in the State.

(4) With a view to facilitate the expansion of the work of the Department in the new directions, it was provided that while the ordinary work of the Department should be carried on by the sanctioned staff, any subject attaining temporary prominence might be included under a special group with a separate staff, under the orders of Government.

The work done by the Department during the period 1917-1922 may be briefly summarised as follows:—

Work of the Department between 1917-1922.

The Department stimulated private initiative and private

effort in the installation of machinery for deep well pumping, in the more efficient utilisation of agricultural products by means of power-driven machinery, and the establishment of a number of small organised industries in various parts of the State both with the help of *takavi* loans by Government and from funds raised by the people themselves. The total number of installations set up with financial aid from Government was 184 and the amount advanced under the system of *takavi* loans was nearly Rs. 8,00,000. The Department paid special attention to the improvement and development of weaving, which is the largest industry, next to agriculture, in the State. The experimental section attached to the Government Weaving Factory established in Bangalore introduced from time to time a number of improved weaving appliances, suitable to the hand-loom weaving industry, which have received wide recognition. Weaving Demonstrators were sent out from the factory for the introduction of fly-shuttle slays and other preparatory machinery with the result that about 4,500 fly-shuttle looms are at work in the various parts of the State. Demonstration factories for the manufacture of metalware and soap were established under the control of the Department with a view to their introduction in the State. The Metal Factory, after a course of successful experimental working, was transferred to private enterprise in August 1921 and arrangements for the transfer of the Soap Factory were also in the course of consideration by Government. The workshop attached to the Water Supply Division of the P. W. D. was taken over by the Department in 1917 and suitable provision was made for the establishment of District Industrial Workshops in the more important District Head-quarters. It was intended that these Workshops should be utilised for the repair of machinery in private industrial installations, the repairs required by Government Departments and the manufacture and adaptation of simple machinery ordinarily required in the State. Two such District Workshops were established, one at Shimoga and another at Tumkur. The Department was also engaged in other investigation work, particularly in regard to minerals, and was able to locate kaolin deposits suitable for the manufacture of ceramic products. The Department was besides of great assistance during the War in the manufacture and supply of Army blankets. Commerce

section of the Department published statistics regarding rail-borne trade in the State and was of help in the control and distribution by Government of various materials such as hides and tanning materials required for supply during the War, and of kerosine oil and of food-stuffs when control over the latter was assumed by Government in view of an unusual shortness of crop and the general dislocation of all business caused by the late War.

Industrial Commission (1916-18) had been published and Departments of Industries had been established in the different provinces in British India. The general industrial revival all over the country necessitated a suitable adaptation of the organisation of the Department of Industries in the State, so that its future activities might be directed along lines of the greatest utility for the industrial advancement of the State.

Although the constitution of the Department enabled it to afford considerable stimulus to the establishment of small organised industries in various parts of the State, it had little influence on the improvement of Cottage Industries, except in regard to weaving. Even in the case of the weaving industry, the advantages which might have been expected by the introduction of improved appliances had not been fully realised, sufficient attention not having been paid to the finding of an outlet for the increased production of hand-woven goods and other connected commercial problems. The Indian Industrial Commission had recognised that the pressing need of the country is the provision of greater facilities for training for the artisan population and recommended that the Central Industrial Schools, which form the only suitable agency for imparting such training, should be handed over to the Department of Industries. The question was first considered in the proposals embodied in the Education Memorandum and Government passed orders transferring the control over Industrial Schools to

the Department of Industries, so that, through their means, the handicraft industries of the State may be developed to a higher state of efficiency. Arrangements had, therefore, to be made to enable the Department to completely overhaul the then prevailing methods of industrial training in the schools and replace them by modern methods of craftsmanship under a trained Superintendent. Further, the special Finance Committee appointed by Government to consider various retrenchment proposals in the State had recommended that, in view of the need for economy in State expenditure, the total cost of the Department should be reduced to one lakh of rupees per annum. Government were also of opinion that large economies might be effected without impairing the usefulness of the Department by abolishing the commercial section constituted on a semi-independent basis in the year 1917. Another object of the reorganisation was to fix with some definiteness the number of officers required for the Department then and in the near future and to simplify recruitment and scales of pay.

The present
organisation
of the
Department.

For these and other reasons, the Department was reorganised in October 1922 and its personnel fixed as follows :—

(1) One Director who will be the administrative Head of the Department.

(2) One Industrial Engineer who will be the Technical Adviser to the Director and responsible for the installation and supervision of industrial machinery in the State.

(3) One Industrial Chemist.

(4) One Superintendent of Industrial Work-shops.

(5) One Superintendent of Commercial Intelligence.

(6) One Textile Assistant for charge of the Weaving Factory.

(7) Two Superintendents of Industries for erection and supervision of industrial installations in the State.

(8) Six mechanics, four fitters, one Commercial Accountant and one Commercial Assistant.

The necessary clerical and menial establishment was also sanctioned for the office of the Director and his subordinates. As regards Industrial Education, Government indicated the main lines of policy which they desire should be pursued in regard to Industrial Education, it being of vital importance for the development of Cottage Industries.

As a result of this reorganisation, the total budget grant for the Department was fixed at Rs. 1,17,525, the net financial effect being a reduction of expenditure amounting to Rs. 68,405.

SECTION 3—CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES.

On the passing of the Co-operative Societies Regulation, III of 1905, a Registrar of Co-operative Societies was appointed to administer it. He was placed under the control of the Revenue Commissioner. Besides the work connected with the movement, Government assigned to him the duties of acquainting himself with the condition of various industries in the State, of studying the causes of their decline and suggesting suitable remedies for their improvement and also of collecting and systematising commercial statistics. He was also appointed *ex-officio* Inspector of Agricultural Banks in the State. In January 1909, the Revenue Commissioner was relieved of control over the Registrar, who was placed under the direct control of Government. The post of the Registrar was a temporary one from 1905-1912, and his status was that of a Deputy Secretary to Government. It was made permanent in September 1912 and was included in the cadre of Deputy Commissioners. In December 1919, it was converted into a special appointment, while the Registrar's status was directed to be that of a Deputy Commissioner of a District as before.

Organization
of Co-opera-
tive
Department.

The Registrar's Office was, in the beginning, a small one consisting of 4 Clerks and there was at first no

separate executive staff for the inspection, control and supervision of the societies. Later, however, a small executive staff was appointed and it was strengthened from time to time according to the requirements of the Department, having regard to the desirability of developing forms of co-operation other than credit and the need for providing effective supervision in order to ensure the stability generally of co-operative institutions.

Division of
Departmental
Work.

For purposes of efficient administration of the Societies, the State was at first divided into two Divisions and later on into four Divisions consisting of two Districts each and each Division was placed under an Assistant Registrar of Co-operative Societies, who performed the functions of the Registrar within his Division, subject, however, to the control of the Registrar. These Assistant Registrars are each given the aid of a small clerical staff. The Registrar exercises general supervision over the whole Department, and, in addition, is in direct charge of the Societies in Bangalore City, which is the centre of the movement in the State, and of the important work of developing Agricultural and Industrial Co-operation in the State. To assist the Registrar in his work, two Sub-Assistant Registrars have also been appointed.

The existing
staff.

The staff of the Department stood as follows at the end of September 1924 :—

One Registrar of Co-operative Societies.

Four Assistant Registrars.

Two Sub-Assistant Registrars (one of whom is the Personal Assistant to the Registrar).

Thirty Inspectors of Co-operative Societies.

Twenty-five Clerks.

Each of the Inspectors is in charge of about 50 Societies.

The policy of encouraging non-official agency to take up the supervision and control of societies has been steadily kept in view. A scheme for appointing local men of influence and retired officials of the status of Taluk Sheristedars as Honorary Supervisors of Co-operative Societies was introduced in 1910 for helping the Department chiefly in the organization of rural co-operative societies and to a smaller extent in the supervision of the societies. The jurisdiction of an Honorary Supervisor is generally confined to a Taluk and his appointment is made from year to year. They are paid their out-of-pocket expenses up to a maximum of one rupee for each day they go out on co-operative work at the discretion of the Registrar. There are at present about 30 Honorary Supervisors and each of them has been assigned a Taluk for his work. The question of utilising the honorary services of a higher class of persons is engaging the attention of Government in connection with the report of the Co-operative Committee to which reference has been made in Vol. III, Chap. IX, above.

SECTION 4—THE GEOLOGICAL DEPARTMENT.

Early in the nineteenth century, a geographical and statistical survey of the Mysore State was made. In April 1886, Government deemed it necessary to institute an enquiry into the past history of gold mining under ancient dynasties as well as into the mineral resources of the State and a rough examination of the auriferous tracts was ordered, the same being entrusted to Messrs. M. F. Lavelle and Walter Marsh. The results of the examination were scrutinised by Mr. R. Bruce-Foote, Superintendent of the Government of India Geological Survey, whose services were lent by the British Government. He made an extensive tour and his report, dated 11th June 1887, was published.

Geological
Survey in
1886-87.

Origin and
Objects of the
Department.

The Mysore Geological Department was organized in October 1894 on a tentative basis for 3 years mainly with the object of carrying out a complete geological survey of the State and publishing geological maps and bulletins and of training a large number of qualified Geologists and Mining Engineers. The supervision of the Gold Mines, the formation of a Museum and the organization of Laboratory were among the other objects Government had in view in bringing the Department into existence. In 1898 the work of inspecting explosives was also added.

Subsequent
Develop-
ments.

To carry out the above programme, the following cadre of officers was sanctioned.

One State Geologist ;
One Senior Geologist and Analyst ;
Two Prospectors ; and
Seven Apprentice Geologists.

In July 1896, with a view to introduce a regular system of supervision over mining work in the State, the Senior Geologist was appointed Inspector of Mines and, in order to meet the additional requirements of the Department, an Assistant Prospector and a Registrar were also appointed. Simultaneously, the State Geologist and the Inspector of Mines were appointed respectively *Ex-Officio* Secretary and Assistant Secretary to Government in the Geological Department, it being found necessary to invest the Department with Secretariat powers. In October 1897, Mr. R. Bruce-Foote, State Geologist, retired and was succeeded by Dr. J. W. Evans who was invested with the additional duties of the Chief Inspector of Mines, the designation of the Senior Geologist being changed into Second State Geologist and Inspector of Mines.

The Department was made permanent in April 1898. In October 1900, the Chief Inspector of Mines was

appointed Chief Inspector of Explosives and a full-time Inspector of Mines was appointed from 14th September 1903, the work in connection with the inspection of mines having rapidly increased year after year.

About 18,000 square miles had been surveyed, but the earlier portions of the work would need revision in the light of subsequent experience. The results of the survey had been published in the shape of reports and maps, besides memoirs, bulletins and notes on special subjects issued from time to time.

Work done
by the
Department
up to 1915.

The inspection of mines and explosives had been systematised and a Laboratory, with a Library and Museum, had also been organized.

In February 1915, the past work of the Geological Department was reviewed by Government and a revised programme of work laid down.

Revision of
Programme
of work in
1914-15.

According to the revised programme, the operations of the Department were to fall under four main heads.

- (1) Geological Survey and Exploration.
- (2) Inspection of Mines and Explosives.
- (3) Production of minerals and development of metallurgical industries on a commercial scale.
- (4) Training of Geologists, Mining Engineers and Prospectors.

Under the first head, the Government laid down that a general knowledge of the geological structure of the country having now been obtained as the result of the survey work already conducted, attention should in future be devoted mainly to problems and investigation which have a direct bearing on the economic resources of the State and that the aim should be to discover tracts likely to yield mineral deposits and ores of commercial value.

Under the third head the Government desired that, as this branch of work had been neglected in the past, special attention should be devoted to it in future. In regard to the second and fourth branches of work, the Government issued instructions for perfecting the work on the old lines.

Reorganiza-
tion of the
Department
in 1915.

To carry out the revised programme, the Government considered that the Geological Department should be reorganized by changing the designation into the "Department of Mines and Geology" by relieving the Departmental Head of the duties of Chief Inspector of Mines and by revising the scale of officers for the Department so as to have separate staffs for inspection and survey. The Government further directed that the work of the Geological Secretariat should be transferred to the General and Revenue Secretariat with effect from 1st March 1915.

Further
Progress.

In accordance with the scheme of work laid down on the reorganization of the Department, a bulletin No. 6 on the Geology of Mysore, a geological map of the State, and another bulletin No. 7 on the Mineral Resources of Mysore with a special mineral map have been published by the Department. Special attention is being paid to mineral exploration and survey and to the investigation of possible industrial development in connection with the limestone, bauxite, graphite, asbestos, soda earth and kaolin.

In July 1917, the Government issued instructions on certain points of detail in the working of the ten year programme of the Department. In connection with the scheme sanctioned by Government in May 1918 for the manufacture of iron, the Department will make arrangements for the survey of the ore and flux area, the excavation and transport of the same, etc.

The work done by the Mines Inspection Branch comprises enquiries into fatal, serious and other important accidents; general systematic inspection of mines; granting of certificates to Engine Drivers, Mestris and Blasters; keeping of surface and underground plans and sections of all working mines; maintenance of records of separate classes of accidents and of the progress of special measures for securing safety, health, etc., collection and preparation of statistics of output, cost, etc., for all working mines branch. The Department is responsible for the general administration of the rules prescribed under Sections 21 and 37 of the Mysore Mines Regulation (IV of 1906).

Inspection
of Mines.

The Mysore Explosives Regulation II of 1818 came into force on the 1st July 1888 simultaneously with the introduction of the Rules framed under it; and the work of control and supervision in connection with the Regulation and the Rules thereunder is done in the Department of Mines and Geology. The work done by the Inspector of Explosives consists of the inspection of explosives, magazines licensed by Government and of their contents; supervision of registered premises licensed by the District Magistrates; inspection of sites of new magazines and the preparation of licenses for issue. The rules framed in 1898 under the Mysore Explosives Regulation were revised in 1918 on the lines of the Government of India Explosives Rules.

The
Explosives
Regulation
and the rules
thereunder.

To meet the needs of the several branches of the Department, particularly investigation of mineral possibilities and Geological Survey for a period of 10 years, a thorough revision was made in September 1919 of the organization of the Department and definite duties and responsibilities were allocated to the several officers. The operations of the Department were

Reorganiza-
tion in 1919.

directed to be conducted under four distinct heads, *viz.*—

(1) Geological Survey on scientific lines and preparation of maps thereof on a scale of one inch to a mile.

(2) Mineral exploration and prospecting.

(3) Development of mining and metallurgical industries.

(4) Development of the Geological Museum and Laboratory.

The mines and explosives branch was constituted into an independent Department under the Chief Inspector of Mines.

Restriction
of activities
in 1922.

In August 1922, Government passed orders on the recommendations of the Special Finance Committee effecting retrenchments in the controlling and ministerial staff of the Department. In view of the retrenchments effected and the limited nature of the grants made available, the programme of work was revised and the activities of the Department were restricted to the completion of the work of the Geological Survey already attempted, the revision and checking of the results arrived at in the course of the preliminary survey and the inspection and supervision of the mining and prospecting work carried on by private enterprise.

Rules for the
grant of
mineral
concessions.

Government, in their order No. G. 19921-2-0 Geol. 57-18-17, dated the 27th February 1920, have revised the rules for the grant of mineral licenses, leases and other concessions in the State and have also laid down the main lines of policy in respect of the exploitation of minerals.

Recruitment
of officers.

The recruitment of officers is regulated from time to time according to the requirements of the Department

and in certain cases the selection of apprentices has been made on the results of competitive examinations.

The receipts and expenditure of the Departments of Mines and Geology for six years from 1918-19 to 1922-23 are given below in thousands of rupees :—

<i>Year.</i>	<i>Receipt.</i>	<i>Expenditure.</i>	<i>Year.</i>	<i>Receipt.</i>	<i>Expenditure.</i>
1918-1919	1,461	1,36	1921-1922	1,612	1,19
1919-1920	1,246	1,32	1922-1923	1,478	1,12
1920-1921	1,487	1,35	1923-1924	1,491	

The total estimated cost of the establishments of the Departments was Rs. 95,572 in 1923-24.

SECTION 5—THE PUBLIC WORKS DEPARTMENT INCLUDING IRRIGATION AND RAILWAYS.

(i) THE PUBLIC WORKS DEPARTMENT.

There are no means of ascertaining the sums expended on Public Works before 1830. There is, however, no doubt that considerable local expenditure was incurred in the construction of temples, palaces, and works for religious purposes or for the shelter or convenience of travellers. Moreover, in the days of the old *Palegars*, much of the means and labour of the people were devoted to the construction of those hill fortresses called *droogs*, which are scattered all over the State and form one of its distinguished features.

During the regency of Dewan Purnaiya, nearly 15 lakhs of rupees were spent on construction and repair of forts, those of Bangalore and Channapatna being the principal works; 5½ lakhs on travellers' bungalows, etc., nearly 2 lakhs on *matts*, chattrams and other religious buildings; 1½ lakhs on taluk cutcherries and other civil buildings; 1¾ lakhs on Webbe's monument near French Rocks.

Receipts and
Expenditure.

Public Works
prior to 1830.

During
Purnaiya's
Regency.

*Before the Rendition. Non-Regulation period
(1831-1855).*

The Public
Works
Department.

Under the previous native Governments, there was no Engineering staff as we now understand it, and the Administration which succeeded in 1831 made no immediate change in this respect. The Superintendents of Divisions and the Amildars of Taluks carried out all descriptions of work through *Mestris* and *Mutsaddis* attached to the taluks. But the want of professional assistance in the matter of roads and bridges early pressed itself on the Administration and the post of a Superintendent of Maramat was created in 1834. The attention of this officer was almost exclusively devoted to designing and executing original works.

Transition period (1856-62).

Origin of the
Public Works
Department.

In July 1854, the Court of Directors, in consideration of the prosperous condition of the finances of Mysore, desired that opportunity should be taken to execute "such works of unusual magnitude and importance as might appear calculated to promote in the largest degree the development of the resources of the country." Sir Mark Cubbon, in reply, proposed to construct the Marikanave Reservoir, as the only large irrigation work coming within the scope of the Court's requirements; but as the Superintendents were "overwhelmed with the revenue and judicial business of their divisions," and as the Commissioner had daily and hourly forced on him the conviction of the utter breakdown of the attempt to maintain the roads by assisting agency without the necessary minute supervision of qualified officers, he suggested that a Superintendent of Roads should be appointed with a proper staff. After further correspondence, the Department of Public Works was

constituted in June 1856, and consisted of a Chief Engineer and an Assistant Chief Engineer for the direction, and of five Executive Engineers, four Assistant Engineers, and eleven Upper and nineteen Lower Subordinates for construction.

Regulation period (1863-1881).

In 1864, a separate Irrigation Department having been formed, the Public Works Department only carried out such original works as necessarily required their supervision. In 1873, the Public Works Department was separated into two distinct branches, one for Roads and Buildings, and the other for Irrigation. In 1876, in order to meet the necessity of increased supervision, consequent on a large increased grant, a re-organization of the establishment and a partial redistribution of the divisional charges were sanctioned. But the great famine which ensued upset every forecast. In 1879, the system was given up by which only Imperial works or those paid for from State revenues were executed by the Public Works Department, while all works paid for from District and Local Funds were carried out by the Deputy Commissioners. For the first time, all works, of whatever nature, thenceforward devolved on the Public Works Department, the establishment charges being rateably distributed over the different funds.

Administra-
tive changes.

In the matter of labour, Mysore had always presented serious difficulties, owing partly to the sparseness of the population (chiefly on the west and south) and partly to the fact that the great bulk of the people were cultivators, whose presence on their own fields was generally called for at the very season when public works required to be pushed on with vigour. The attractions offered by the tea and coffee estates on the Nilgiris; in Wynad, Coorg, Manjarabad and Nagar, the advent of the

Labour
required for
the
Department.

Railway, together with the great extension of public works, both provincial and local, and the impetus given to private undertakings of all kinds combined to raise the price of labour very high. As nearly as could be ascertained from an analysis of the rates for labour at each decade during the previous 40 years, it would appear that the price of unskilled labour had doubled since 1850 and that of skilled labour risen threefold.

Under old
Rulers.

At all times the labour needed for repairs of tanks and channels had presented special difficulties, and, under old Rulers, was no doubt met by expedients not now available. In addition to the forced labour then resorted to, there was in many instances a tank establishment (*Kere bandes*) who, in return for certain lands held rent-free, were required to maintain buffaloes for bringing earth to the tank embankments. Whatever remained of this old institution was being put an end to by the members being released from service and allowed to retain their inam lands on payment of a small quit-rent. There were also bodies of men called *Kāmātis*, who in return for certain privileges, were liable to be called on for effecting repairs within their respective taluks; as also corps called *Khalihats*, who were organised for general service in all parts of the State on road or irrigation works as might be required. The origin of this corps, which among other privileges enjoyed freedom from house-tax, was, however, of comparatively recent date. They were originally palanquin bearers, maintained by the State on the main road from Palmanair to Mysore *via* Bangalore, their services to travellers being, it is understood, rendered gratis.

Labour corps.

With the increase of travellers, and the introduction of other means of locomotion than palanquins, the specific employment for this corps ceased, and the men were as

a body turned over to the Maramat in 1841, and afterwards to the new Department of Public Works. In 1860, the *Kāmātis* and *Khalihats* were fused into a single corps of 10 companies, 100 strong each, with an establishment of Jamedars, Dafedars, Mutsaddis, etc. The annual cost of this corps amounted to Rs. 67,000. In this form, the corps, though rather reduced in numbers, was usefully employed on works to the west and north-west of the State, where it was almost impossible to raise indigenous labour.

Cooly companies had at times been raised for specific purposes and short periods; but they had been found more troublesome than useful, and the work turned out by them expensive. *Moplahs* and other coast men were frequently found ready to undertake the construction of rough stone revetments on the ghat roads; but in all other parts of the country, indigenous labour had to be relied on.

Cooly
Companies.

Since 1862, the system of executing work by contract had been more largely resorted to than before. The practice of making advances, which had led to most unsatisfactory results, was done away with, and contractors were encouraged by payments made at short intervals on approved work. While it must be conceded that in many cases bad work may have been passed and paid for, there is no doubt that advantageous results were nevertheless attained. The system enabled the Department to extend its operations more than would otherwise have been possible with its restricted establishment.

Contract
system.

Public works after the formation of the Department.

Since the formation of the Department of Public Works in 1856, the expenditure for 20 years under

Expenditure.

several heads exclusive of establishment may thus be stated:—

Class of works	Original works	Repairs	Total
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1. Military	1,77,233	37,563	2,14,796
2. Civil buildings ...	25,96,501	3,23,450	29,19,951
3. Agriculture and Irrigation	18,73,975	34,06,202	52,80,177
4. Communications ...	45,63,658	51,11,255	96,74,913
5. Miscellaneous and Public improvements.	7,48,722	70,712	8,19,434
Total ...	99,60,089	89,49,182	1,89,09,271

Under
Military.

Under Military, the expenditure was due to the construction in 1865-66 of a new cantonment for a Native Infantry Regiment at Mysore, which, however, had subsequently to be abandoned owing to the unhealthiness of the situation.

Civil
Buildings.

The largest works were the public offices at Bangalore, built between 1864 and 1868, at a cost of Rs. 4,27,930 including site with the Central Jail and the Bowring Civil Hospital, built in 1867, at a cost for the former of Rs. 46,047 and for the latter of Rs. 2,16,454. More recently at Bangalore, the Maharaja's Palace, Government House, the Division Cutcherry, and the Central College, (late High School), are prominent buildings which were in great measure (especially the first) rebuilt according to ornamental designs costing altogether about Rs. 2½ lakhs. With these may be mentioned the Museum, the Post Office and the Government Press, costing together nearly Rs. 1 lakh. *Cutcheries* at head-quarters of Districts for Deputy Commissioners, at Sub-Division head-quarters for Assistant Commissioners, Courts for Judicial Assistants, Taluk *Cutcheries*, District

Jails (that at Shimoga costing over 1 lakh), School houses, Civil Hospitals and Dispensaries, offices for Executive Engineers at District head-quarters, were various classes of structure which provided throughout the country suitable accommodation for the several branches of public business involved.

In the category of civil buildings fall also the work done to public monuments and religious buildings. The chief work was the repair and repainting of Tippu's Summer Palace, known as the *Dariya Doulat*, at Seringapatam, under orders issued by the Marquis of Dalhousie in November 1855. The work, which was almost entirely of an artistic character, *viz.*, repainting the picture of Baillie's defeat, renewal of the interior enrichments, etc., was well completed in a little over three years at an outlay of Rs. 37,000. Under the same authority, Rs 2,000 was expended in 1859 in replacing the inlaid doors and executing other work to the tombs of Haidar and Tipu at Seringapatam. Rupees 5,491 were spent in restoring the roof and otherwise preserving the celebrated temple at Halebid.

Under miscellaneous public improvements, the works have as a rule ceased since the introduction of municipal institutions and are confined to exceptional cases in which the assistance of Government is given in the shape of a grant-in-aid. All large towns have benefited more or less, but Bangalore, above others, as being the seat of Government and the most important town in the State. Nearly Rs. 2½ lakhs were spent on the central channel of the Cantonment Bazaar, and in the construction of a self-regulating main sewer which runs alongside and transfers all sewage to a considerable distance from the town. The largest works undertaken were the water supply projects for Bangalore and Mysore, the estimates being about Rs. 5 lakhs for each.

Miscellaneous
public
improve-
ments.

*After the Rendition.***Administra-
tion and
Staff.**

The Public Works Department was under an Engineer officer belonging to the British Service and lent to the State and retired therefrom as Chief Engineer. Till 1902, these officers were always Royal Engineers. Since then, Civil Engineers have been holding the place. The Chief Engineer is also Secretary to Government in that Department. The executive staff consists wholly of local Engineers, mostly of Mysore origin, trained in the Engineering Colleges at Madras, Poona and Bangalore.

**Formation
of a Sanitary
Division.**

In December 1892, a separate Sanitary Department was organised for the purpose of developing effective measures for the sanitation of all the more populous towns and of designing and carrying out works of water supply and drainage; and the Department so organised was placed under the charge of a Sanitary Engineer (whose designation was subsequently in November 1898 changed into Superintending Engineer, Sanitary Works), subject to the control of the Chief Engineer, Public Works Department. The Sanitary Engineer is now included in the cadre of the Executive Engineers.

**Administra-
tive
Divisions.**

The activity in public works of all classes has been expanding rapidly since the Rendition, and, in order to strengthen the Administrative Branch of the Department and to afford better control over expenditure, with more frequent and effective inspection of works in progress, as well as more thorough scrutiny of projects under preparation, the State was sub-divided in January 1897 into two circles, Western and Eastern, each under the direct control of a Superintending Engineer subject to the orders of the Chief Engineer. In 1909, on the recommendation of the Retrenchment Committee, Government directed the abolition of the two posts of Superintending Engineers, and the Chief Engineer with

his Deputy was made to administer the Department in an efficient manner. During the year 1911-12, the re-organisation of the Department and the redistribution of charges were brought into effect. In addition to the Northern Circle of Superintendence reconstituted in 1910, a new circle designated the Southern Circle was formed during the year 1911-12, these two taking the place of the old Eastern and Western Circles. These two circles were made permanent in the year 1913-14. In order to ensure proper attention to the preparation and extension of water supply schemes, drainage projects, etc., a separate Sanitary circle of Superintendence was formed with effect from 15th August 1920, of the existing Sanitary and Water Supply Divisions. Further, the existing two circles of Superintendence, *viz.*, Northern and Southern, were reconstituted into Eastern and Western Circles and their jurisdiction was revised with a view to make them geographically compact and administratively efficient. The scale of office establishment was also revised. Government in their order dated 9th September 1922 sanctioned the further re-organisation of the Department. Two independent administrative officers were constituted, one for Irrigation, Sanitation and Water Supply and the other for Roads and Buildings. The offices of Superintending Engineers and Deputy Chief Engineer were abolished and reductions were effected in the strength of the executive establishment. The prospects in all grades, executive as well as clerical, were improved. The *Maramat* Department in charge of minor irrigation works was transferred from the Revenue Department to the Public Works Department. A special water supply division was formed. The powers of Chief Engineers and Executive Engineers were enhanced. The administration of Krishnarajasagara Works, including channels, was placed temporarily under a special officer in view of certain outstanding questions

requiring sustained and undivided attention. As a measure of further retrenchment, orders were subsequently issued reducing the number of administrative officers of the Department from three to two, appointing one Chief Engineer to be in charge of Irrigation branch as well as Roads and Buildings and a separate officer for the Secretariat duties and for the charge of the Krishnarajasagara Works. The powers that were being exercised by the Chief Engineer were revised in view of the formation of a separate Secretariat.

Time scale for
Engineer officers.

In view of the large and continually increasing expenditure on important Public Works in the State and the necessity of maintaining these works in a proper and efficient condition, Government in 1915 sanctioned the following scheme for Engineer officers in the Department as recommended by the Chief Engineer, at an expenditure of Rs. 22,000 per mensem.

Scale No.		Pay Rs.		
		Minimum	Increment	Maximum
14.	Executive Engineers ...	500	25	850
20.	Assistant Engineers ...	250	25	400
20.	Sub-Assistant Engineers ...	100	20	220
10.	Upper Subordinates ...	80	10	150

The recruitment to the Sub-Assistant Engineer class was generally confined to graduates of distinction, other Engineering Graduates being entertained as Upper Subordinates and styled Overseers until they reached a pay of Rs. 150 and became Sub-Engineers thereafter.

The scale of pay of the Engineering officers after the reorganisation of 1922 stands as follows :—

Executive Engineers...	500-25-850
Assistant Engineers ..	250-25-400
Sub-Engineers .	150-10-200
Overseers .	100-10-150

Activities of the Department.

During the four years immediately succeeding the Rendition, the Public Works grant averaged 15 lakhs of rupees a year. By the transfer of the State Railway in July 1886 to foreign capitalists, the Government were enabled to place at the disposal of this Department much larger sums of money than in the preceding years. The grant was raised to Rs. 18½ lakhs in 1885-86 and rose every following year to Rs. 29½ lakhs in 1890-91 and was between Rs. 30½ and 32 lakhs in the four years to 1894-95.

Public Works
grants.

The works executed are classed as Original or Repairs under the heads :—

Classification
of works.

- (1) "Military"
- (2) "Civil Buildings"
- (3) "Communications"
- (4) "Miscellaneous Public Improvements" and "Irrigation" (Tanks and channels)."

Some additional works for which funds are provided from the Departments concerned are also carried out for Forest, Education, Medical and Muzrai Departments and Municipalities.

During the 42 years from the Rendition, *i.e.*, from 1881-82 to 1924-25, the expenditure of the Department from all funds on original works and maintenance amounted to Rs. 1,34,882,528 distributed as below :—

Expenditure.

	Original works	Repairs	Total
Military	22,82,713	3,52,142	26,34,855
Civil Buildings ...	2,71,62,528	47,31,743	3,18,94,271
Communications ...	94,00,912	2,74,01,928	3,68,02,840
Miscellaneous Public Improvements.	1,15,67,089	48,21,818	1,63,88,907
Irrigation	3,73,26,574	98,35,121	4,71,61,655
Total	8,77,39,776	4,71,42,752	13,48,82,528

An additional sum of Rs. 34,195,953 was spent on "Establishment," "Tools and Plants" and "Profit and Loss," bringing up the total expenditure to

Rs. 1,69,078,481. The following are some of the more important works carried out since the Rendition :—

Under Military.

Lines for the new Imperial Service Lancers and Transport Corps were constructed at Bangalore at a total cost of about eleven and a half lakhs of rupees. The Silledar Lines at Bangalore, Mysore and Shimoga were rebuilt, as also the Barr Lines at all the District Head-quarters except Kadur.

Civil Buildings.

Numerous works were undertaken to meet the growing needs of the State as well as the interests of the Public. On account of the unfortunate destruction by fire of the major portion of the old Palace at Mysore in February 1897, it became necessary to rebuild it at a cost of Rs. 42,66,000. Of other large buildings constructed, the following are the important ones :—

<i>Name of building</i>		<i>Cost.</i> Rs.
1.	The Fern Hill Palace, Ootacamund ...	4,78,000
2.	The Victoria General Hospital, Bangalore ...	7,84,000
3.	The Minto Ophthalmic Hospital, Bangalore ...	2,82,000
4.	The Maharaja's College, Mysore ...	2,08,000
5.	The Chamarajendra Technical Institute, Mysore ...	1,52,000
6.	The New High School, Bangalore ...	1,52,000
7.	The Public Offices, Mysore ...	2,03,000
8.	The Revenue Survey and Land Record Office, Bangalore	1,00,000
9.	Jaganmohan Pavilion at Mysore ...	1,31,000
10.	First Princess' Mansion, Mysore ...	6,99,000
11.	Second do do ...	4,28,000
12.	Sir Seshadri Iyer's Memorial Hall at Bangalore ...	84,000
13.	Krishnaraja Hospital at Mysore ...	3,65,000
14.	Technical Institute, Bangalore ...	1,14,031
15.	New Collegiate High School, Mysore ...	1,72,229
16.	Residential Block to the Palace at Mysore ...	3,90,731
17.	New Office Block to the Palace at Mysore ...	4,37,483
18.	Guests' Mansion near the Lalitadri at Mysore ...	23,00,000
19.	Subsidiary Buildings to the Krishnarajendra Hospital at Mysore ...	1,36,863
20.	European Guests' quarters at Mysore ...	70,330
21.	Quarters for the Members of the Representative Assembly at Mysore ...	53,221
22.	The Vani Vilas Institute at Bangalore ...	69,567
23.	Science Laboratory to the Collegiate High School, Bangalore... ..	76,400
24.	Extension of the Revenue Survey Office at Bangalore	44,731

Large additions or improvements were made to the following buildings :—

<i>Name of building</i>	<i>Cost Rs.</i>	<i>Additions and improvements to Buildings.</i>
1. The Palace, Bangalore ...	5,64,000	
2. The Central College, Bangalore	4,84,000	
3. The Public Offices, Bangalore...	8,90,000	
4. The Government House, Mysore	2,11,000	
5. The Distillery Buildings, Bangalore	1,47,000	
6. The Central Jail, Bangalore	75,000	

Among buildings constructed for the Scientific or Miscellaneous Departments may be mentioned the Laboratories for the Meteorological, Geological, Bacteriological and Agricultural Departments at Bangalore and an Experimental Agricultural Farm and School at Hebbal; the Victoria Jubilee Institute and Hindu Visitors' Quarters at Mysore; and the further restoration of the Daria Dowlat Bagh at Seringapatam and the renovation of the Kedareshwara Temple at Halebid and the Chennakesava Temple at Belur.

In addition to these, new buildings were constructed for the different Departments as noted below :—

	No.
District Judge's Court	1
Sub-Judge's Court	1
Munsiff's Courts	8
District Jails	1
Police Stations	62
Revenue Sub-Division Offices	4
Taluk Cutcheries	33
Hospitals	3
Dispensaries	74
School Buildings	42
Sandal Koties	3

Under "Miscellaneous Public Improvements," the works executed consist chiefly of town improvements, water supply installations and drainage schemes. The most important of these are the water supply of the Bangalore City, Mysore City, and the Kolar Gold Fields

and improvements and extensions to the Bangalore and Mysore Cities.

Water Supply
to the Cities
of Bangalore
and Mysore.

The water supply to Bangalore City from the Chamarajendra reservoir, which is 12 miles distant, cost Rs. 32 lakhs and the water supply to Mysore from the Cauvery cost Rs. 15 lakhs. Both these schemes have been planned on modern lines with Jewell Filter Installations and the pumping plants are worked by electric power. In connection with the Gold Mining operations on the Kolar Gold Fields, a water supply scheme from the Bethamangala tank was carried out at a cost of Rs. 17 lakhs. In addition to these, water supply installations have been provided to 15 towns or villages in different parts of the State where water scarcity was keenly felt.

Extensions.

In Bangalore and Mysore Cities, several large extensions have been laid out on modern sanitary principles. Extensions or improvements on a smaller scale have been carried out at Shimoga, Davangere, Yedatore and other places and several new towns have come into existence on the Kolar Gold Fields.

Water supply
and drain-
age works to
the new town
of Bhadra-
vati.

Drainage works at a total outlay of Rs. 60,000 and water supply scheme at a cost of Rs. 1,30,000 were completed and handed over to the Mysore Iron Works in the month of March 1923.

Other Miscel-
laneous
Works.

Among works of miscellaneous nature may be mentioned the building of a spacious glass-house for the Horticultural show in the Lal-Bagh Gardens at Bangalore, the construction of a model range of Bazaars at Mysore, the erection of suitable memorials (consisting of statue, temple, *chattram*, bathing-ghat, etc.) for His Highness the late Maharaja Sri Chamarajendra Wadiyar

Bahadur at Mysore, Calcutta and Seringapatam and the filling up of the Purnaiya's Nala at Mysore. An expenditure of Rs. 6 lakhs was incurred on these works.

(ii) THE IRRIGATION DEPARTMENT.

History of the Department.

During the non-regulation period (from 1831-55), the maintenance of tanks and channels was always regarded as specially appertaining to Revenue Officials.

Non-Regulation Period
(1831-55).

At the time of the formation of the Public Works Department in 1856, although the charge of the roads was completely handed over to that Department, that of tanks and channels still remained with the revenue officers. It was only by a species of lapse that the Executive Engineers found themselves in charge of such special works as appeared necessary from their own personal inspection, or as were brought to their notice by Revenue Officers. The anomalies which thus sprung up were in a great measure put an end to in 1863, by a committee which assigned the charge of tanks definitely to the Revenue Officers, with specific powers of sanction, reserving for the Department of Public Works such works as called for professional supervision. This arrangement gradually gave place to a better system of tank management, which had been shown to be necessitated by the tank system peculiar to Mysore, involving as it does the solution of hydraulic questions of no ordinary difficulty, and demanding the services of a highly trained professional Department.

Transition period
(1856-62).

Regulation Period (1863 1881).

After prolonged discussion, the Secretary of State for India approved in 1864 of the formation of an Irrigation

Formation of
the Department.

Department for carrying out the objects in view. By this arrangement, the Revenue officers remained as before charged with the up-keep of such tanks as were not immediately being dealt with by the Irrigation Department. These latter selected specific series for immediate work, and brought the tanks composing them up to standard, to be afterwards made over to cultivators for perpetual maintenance, with the exception of works like waste weirs, sluices, etc., which required departmental management, and for which provision was made partly by annual grants and partly from the Irrigation Cess of one anna per rupee of wet land assessment. The avowed object of this plan was that, while the whole of the tanks in the country would be brought up to a standard of safety and their future up-keep thrown upon the most interested parties—the raiyats—under stringent regulations, nothing but simple conservancy would of necessity be imposed on the succeeding Indian Government which would be thus enabled effectually to control the whole without the aid of highly trained engineering staff. So also for irrigation channels under the Cauvery, Hemavati, Lakshmanatirtha and Shimsha rivers, a separate Channel Conservancy Establishment was formed in 1864 under the supervision of Revenue Officers. A separate Irrigation Superintending Engineer with a distinct establishment under him was appointed in 1870 but, as a tentative measure, all “Minor Irrigation works” were left in charge of the Civil Officers. The charge of the irrigation channels and the direction of the conservancy establishment were made over to the Superintending Engineer. It was not until 1872-73 that a separate Irrigation Department on a proper basis was formed to deal with the numerous irrigation works in the State under a Superintending Engineer. In 1874-75, four Irrigation Divisions were provided for in the budget but only three were formed,

and these three were so short-handed as to seriously interfere with progress and prevent efficient supervision. At the close of the years 1875-76, there were the full sanctioned strength of Executive Engineers, 8 Assistant Engineers out of ten, but only ten upper Subordinates against 21 sanctioned.

The Department had to be abolished in 1878 owing to the financial pressure after the great famine of 1876-1877. Most of the European Officers of the Department left the State, the few remaining being amalgamated with the Public Works Department, and gradually Indian Engineers took the place of the European Engineers in the Executive and Assistant Engineer grades.

Abolition of
the Depart-
ment.

After the Rendition.

In the first quinquennial State Administration Report after the Rendition, it is stated that the roads, tanks and channels were efficiently maintained by the Public Works Department, that there were no special engineering difficulties to contend with, that the locally trained engineering staff was equal to the task, and that the employment of the more expensive European agency was necessary only for special projects. A special conservancy establishment was maintained for the supervision of channels and attended to the maintenance under the Public Works Department and the distribution of water during the Irrigation season under the Revenue Department. A Superintending Engineer was specially appointed in 1898 for charge of the Marikanive works. In 1911-12, a Construction Division for the large reservoir work across the Cauvery at Kannambadi was formed under the charge of a Superintending Engineer assisted by three Executive Engineers. During the year 1918-19, works connected with the development of irrigation in the Cauvery valley, including the construction

Management
of Irrigation
Works by
P. W. D.

of the Krishnarajasagara Dam were constituted into an independent administrative unit and placed in charge of a separate Chief Engineer and Joint Secretary to Government in the P. W. D. The appointment of the separate Chief Engineer was abolished and the administration of the Krishnarajasagara Works transferred to the Chief Engineer from 26th March 1921. Owing to the reductions in the scale of operations on the Krishnarajasagara Dam, the circle was reconstituted and dam construction was entrusted to an Executive Engineer working directly under the Chief Engineer, the two old construction Divisions being abolished and the other establishments suitably revised.

In November 1913, on the recommendation of the Chief Engineer, the Government sanctioned the constitution of an Irrigation Division at an annual outlay of Rs. 30,000 tentatively for a period of three years and in 1917 the continuance of the Division for a further period of two years.

During the year 1918-19, Government sanctioned the formation of a Central Irrigation Board consisting of the Chief Engineer (President), the Revenue Secretary to Government, the Revenue Commissioner in Mysore and the Executive Engineer, Water Supply Division (Secretary). In the G.O. dated 9th September 1922, a separate Chief Engineer was appointed for Irrigation, Sanitation and Water Supply. Subsequently, as a measure of further retrenchment, the appointment of a separate Chief Engineer for Irrigation was abolished.

(iii) THE RAILWAY DEPARTMENT.

Prior to the Rendition.

Direction.

The charge of the Superintendent of Railway Works, opened with a view to give employment to the thousands clamouring for relief during the famine of 1877-78, fell to

the Roads and Buildings branch of the Public Works Department, it having been deemed unnecessary to establish for it a separate office of direction. The incidence of charges was, however, kept apart. In 1879-80, a railway establishment was organized to carry out the line from Bangalore to Mysore as an ordinary public works. The construction establishment consisted of an Engineer-in-Chief, three Executive and four Assistant Engineers, with a staff of upper subordinates. In 1880-81, two Assistant Engineers and one Overseer were transferred to other Railways. Reduction was also made in the office establishment.

After the Rendition.

As a consequence of the transfer of the State Railway to the Southern Mahratta Railway Company in 1886, the State Railway branch of the Public Works Department was merged into that of the Public Works Department, General Branch. The greater portion of the Staff of the State Railway was transferred to the Southern Mahratta Railway Company for employment on the understanding that the terms and condition of their service were to be the same as in the Mysore Service and that they were to be responsible for payment to the State of contributions for their pension through the Southern Mahratta Railway Company who were to enhance their salaries to an extent to enable them to defray their contributions.

State Railway
Branch
merged into
the General
Branch
P. W. D.

Reorganisation of the Department.

Owing to the absence of activity in the matter of railway extension in the State for more than a dozen years past, Government in 1911-12 decided upon the pursuit of a progressive policy during the next few years and accorded sanction to a programme of railway

Formation of
the Construc-
tion Depart-
ment.

construction and to the formation of a State Railway Construction Department, of which Mr. E. A. S. Bell, whose services were placed at the disposal of the State by the Government of India, was appointed as the Engineer-in-Chief.

Separation of
the Railway
and Public
Works Depart-
ment.

During 1912-13, the Railway Secretariat was separated from the Public Works Department and constituted into a separate unit. The Engineer-in-Chief, State Railway Construction Department, was appointed Ex-officio Secretary for Railways and another officer whose services were also obtained on loan from the Government of India was appointed Under Secretary for Railways and Personal Assistant to the Engineer-in-Chief.

Appointment
of an Agent
for Railways.

During 1914-15, the services of Mr. E. A. S. Bell were replaced at the disposal of the Government of India and Mr. C. D. Dove-wilson, Deputy Engineer-in-Chief, North-Western Railway, whose services were lent by the British Government, was appointed as Agent and Engineer-in-Chief of the State Railway Department. For the efficient administration of the Railway Department, the office of the Engineer-in-Chief for Railways was separated from the Railway Secretariat and the staff of officers of that Secretariat was revised and strengthened.

Additions to
the Depart-
ment.

During 1915-16, the offices of the Engineer-in-Chief and the Agent were combined with that of the Secretary for Railways. A consulting Engineer for the Mysore State Railways and Superintending Engineer for construction were added to the Department. The office of the Agent was strengthened by the addition of a Deputy Agent who is also Under Secretary to Government in this Department. An Engineering Assistant and

Secretary to the Agent were also appointed so that the Department might be self-contained.

The State Railway Department is composed of several minor departments each controlled by a Head of the Department as under :—

- | | | |
|------------------|------------------|--------------------------------|
| 1. Engineering.— | | |
| | (a) Surveys | Engineer-in-Chief. |
| | (b) Construction | Superintendent, |
| | and Open | Ways and Works. |
| | Lines. | |
| II. | Locomotive. | ... Loco Superintendent. |
| III. | Carriage and | Carriage and Wagon Superinten- |
| | Wagon. | dent. |
| IV. | Traffic | ... Traffic Manager. |
| V. | Audit and Ac- | |
| | counts. | Auditor, Railways. |
| VI. | Stores | ... Chief Store-keeper. |

The work of the several departments is co-ordinated and controlled by the Agent.

Miscellaneous.

A Railway Committee consisting of certain official and non-official members has also been constituted to advise Government on questions relating to Railway Policy, finance, construction and establishment. The Secretary to the Agent is *ex-officio* Secretary to the Committee and important matters are referred to the Committee before submission to Government for orders.

A Railway
Committee.

Except when unavoidable, only natives of Mysore are given appointments in the Department and the various officers and subordinates imported from outside the State are under covenants to train up local men. The requirements of the Department are foreseen and trained staff arranged for beforehand.

Appointments
in the
Department.

Training of Probationers.

Three Traffic Probationers were trained on the Madras and Southern Mahratta and South Indian Railways and have since been appointed Assistant Traffic Superintendents on the Mysore Railways. Three graduates in Engineering were trained on the Eastern Bengal Railways, the Madras and Southern Mahratta Railway and the Great Indian Peninsular Railway, respectively, in the Loco and Carriage and Wagon Departments and absorbed by the Department. Candidates who have passed out of the Engineering Schools in the State are taken on as Probationers and trained to take up the duties of Permanent Way Inspectors, Drivers and Carriage Examiners.

A Signalling School.

There is a Signalling School attached to the Traffic Manager's office where telegraphy is taught. A scheme for the training of apprentices as skilled workmen in the workshops has been sanctioned by Government and 12 boys were actively under training during the year 1923-24. Government have also sanctioned another scheme for training students as Drivers and Firemen.

State Railway Open Line Code, etc.

The work of the Department is regulated by the Government of India State Railway Open Line Code so far as it is applicable to conditions, modified and supplemented by local standing orders and manuals for the several departments. The working of trains is governed by the General Rules issued by the Government of India for the working of open lines with the subsidiary rules issued by the State Railway Department.

Manuals.

Separate Manuals have been issued for the Engineering and Traffic Departments and for the preparation and submission of station accounts. Manuals for the Loco, Carriage, Wagon and Stores Departments are under compilation.

The recommendations of the Committee of Departmental officers appointed to revise the preparation of railway statistics of the Government of India have been approved by Government. The risk note forms underwent material alterations in accordance with the recommendations of the special committee appointed by the Government of India and the new forms have been brought into effect from 1st October 1924.

Railway
Statistics.

SECTION 6—ELECTRICAL DEPARTMENT.

It was mutually agreed by the General Electric Company and the Government that the one year's maintenance stipulated for in the Agreement with the General Electric Company, Part III, Chapter VI, should be considered as having expired on 15th March 1903. From that date Government took over the operation and management of the plant. The services of the necessary staff were entertained under a Chief Electrical Engineer. From the year 1904-05, a special budget was introduced and separate accounts maintained of receipts and expenditure on this work. During the year 1909-10, the Department was made separate directly under the Chief Electrical Engineer.

Formation
of the
Department.

The Mysore Electricity Regulation, No. IV of 1900, was passed to provide for the protection of person and property from the risks incident to the supply and use of electricity for lighting and other purposes. Prevention of damage to the electric power transmission line, Regulation No. 1 of 1902, was passed for the prevention of wrongful damage to the Cauvery Power Scheme Electric Transmission Line. The Regulation provides for the employment of additional Police force in any place where wrongful damage is caused to any part of the line and levying the cost thereof from the inhabitants of the place.

Law relating
to Electricity.

System of
accounts.

During the year 1908-09, the system of accounts maintained for the Cauvery Power Scheme was examined by Messrs. Lovelock and Lewes, Chartered Accountants, Calcutta, and their recommendations in view to the accounts being kept more or less on commercial lines were reported upon by a committee of local officers appointed by Government. In the result, a new system of accounts keeping was ordered to be adopted.

Staff arrange-
ments.

In August 1903, the Government passed Rules for the maintenance staff consisting of :—

A.—A Chief Electrical Engineer and imported experts under special agreements.

B.—(a) Eight Electrical Operators on a pay of Rs. 100 to Rs. 400.

(b) Eight Hydraulic Operators on a pay of Rs. 50 to Rs. 200.

(c) Five Line Inspectors on a pay of Rs. 50 to Rs. 300.

(d) Three Probationers on a pay of Rs. 50 to Rs. 200.

The Chief Electrical Engineer was treated as a Superintending Engineer.

On the 31st March 1905, the Government sanctioned a scale of establishment for the Bangalore Power and Lighting Scheme at a cost ranging from Rs. 900 to Rs. 1,220 per mensem. In August 1908, the Government sanctioned a revision of the scale increasing the minimum cost to Rs. 1,478 and the maximum to Rs. 3,078 per mensem. According to the revised scale, one Superintendent on Rs. 250-10-350 was provided. In December 1908, an establishment for the Mysore Lighting and Power Supply Scheme, costing Rs. 665 minimum and Rs. 1,205 maximum, was sanctioned. In June 1911, the Departmental establishment was further reorganized without involving any extra cost and Government extended to the employees of the Cauvery

Power Scheme the benefits of State Life Insurance and Family pension. In November 1917, owing to the steady expansion of the work of the Department in different directions and the increase of output of power by 42 per cent and the revenue by about seven lakhs per annum, the Electrical Department was further reorganized involving an increase of about Rs. 32,000 per annum. In 1921, owing to additional installations of power, the Department was reorganized afresh at an additional cost, from 1st June 1921, of Rs. 1,79,000. With a view to secure adequate supervision in audit over all the financial transactions of the Department, Government sanctioned in 1925 the creation of a new section in the Department in charge of an Auditor. Inspection of the accounts of all the sectional offices is regularly carried out to check minor irregularities.

Since the year 1914-15, meetings have been held, whenever found necessary, of all the Sectional Officers. At these meetings, suggestions tending to the good of the Department are discussed as well as questions relating to operation, maintenance, accounts, stores, etc. This has resulted in the co-operation of the different sections and an improved Department.

Meeting of
Sectional
Officers.

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CHAPTER V.

FINANCIAL.

FINANCE IN GENERAL.

(a) Brief survey of the fluctuations in Revenue from 1800 to 1881 and growth of Revenue from 1881.

Revenue before and after 1799.

THE gross revenue of Mysore in 1791, according to accounts furnished to Lord Cornwallis by Tīpu Sultān, was Kanthiraya Pagodas 14,12,500 or in the present currency about 42 lakhs of rupees. The gross revenue raised from 1799-1800 was as follows :—

Year	Kanthiraya Pagodas	Government Rupees	Year	Kanthiraya Pagodas	Government Rupees
1799-1800	21,53,000	62,79,583	1801-1802	26,04,000	75,95,000
1800-1801	24,20,000	70,58,333	1802-1803	25,41,000	74,11,250

Fluctuations in Revenue.

The revenue subsequently languished during the administration of His Highness the Maharaja Krishnaraja Wodeyar III and, in the year after the country was placed under British Commissioners, the receipts amounted to Rs. 55 lakhs only, in the next to 58 lakhs, then to 67 lakhs and to 76½ lakhs in the year 1835-36. It fluctuated between 68½ and 81½ lakhs till 1853-54. The next year of increase was 1856-57, when the gross receipts were 89 lakhs; in 1859-60 they amounted to 99 lakhs, and in 1861-62 to 100½ lakhs. In 1865-66, they reached 109 lakhs, and in 1872-73 close upon 110 lakhs, since when the revenue stood at from 109½ to 109¾ lakhs. The revenue collections in the year 1876-77 and 1877-78, during which the famine prevailed, were 82½ lakhs and 69½ lakhs respectively, showing a loss of revenue in the two years of 67 lakhs.

The main sources of State Revenue as distinguished from Local and Municipal Funds were the following :—

Sources of
Revenue up
to Rendition

- | | |
|------------------------|------------------------|
| (1) Land Revenue which | (6) Salt, |
| formed the bulk of | (7) Stamps, |
| General Revenue, | (8) Post Office, |
| (2) Forests, | (9) Law, Justice and |
| (3) Abkari, | Police, |
| (4) Sayer, | (10) Public Works, and |
| (5) Mohatarfa, | (11) Other items. |

In regard to the finances of the State at the time, Dewan Rangacharlu in his address to the Representative Assembly in October 1881 observed as follows :—

Condition of
Finances at
the time.

“ The highest figure which the revenue reached before the famine was 109½ lakhs of rupees and, as this was more than double the estimated assets of the Province at the time of the Treaty of 1799, it has given rise to an erroneous impression that the revenues of the Province possess an unlimited capacity for expansion, but, as a matter of fact, the revenue mentioned in the Treaty was grossly under-estimated. The increase which accrued in subsequent years has been marked by two periods of a great and sudden rise; one indicating the transition from a state of helpless dependence of the raiyats on the Government under the batayi tenure, absence of all trade and low prices to a more settled Government, with a money assessment, and outlay of money on Railway and other Public Works and free trade and comparatively high prices, and the other, a still further enhancement of the prices resulting from the demand in the English market for Indian cotton and other produce occasioned by the American war and the stoppage of the supplies from America. Excluding the increase due to these two causes, the progress of cultivation and revenue in ordinary years has been slow, certainly not in proportion to the increase of population. I draw attention to this fact to show that Governments wishing to adjust their expenditure to the Revenue should direct their efforts to a proper retrenchment of the expenditure rather than depend on any vague expectation of deriving an increase to revenue from an impoverished country.”

The Progress of Revenue after the Rendition.

First period :
from 1881-82
to 1893-94.

Statement No. II (a) shows the receipts during each year in this period under the several heads of revenue. The total revenue which was 108·5 lakhs in the first year after the Rendition rose to 173·60 lakhs at the end of the period. The bulk of the increase occurred under Land Revenue which showed an improvement of 34·45 per cent due to extension of cultivation, introduction of Survey Settlement and increased assessment for new irrigation, provided by the State. One new and important source of revenue, *viz.*, Royalty on Gold Mines, was added during the period.

Second
period: from
1894-95 to
1903-04.

The progress of revenue during this decade is detailed in Statement II (b). The aggregate revenue which stood at 180 $\frac{3}{4}$ lakhs at the commencement of this period advanced to 215 $\frac{1}{2}$ lakhs at its close. Owing to draught in 1896-97 and to appearance of bubonic plague in a virulent form for the first time in 1898-99, there was a temporary fall in the revenue in these two years, but otherwise, the improvement of the revenue was marked throughout the period. The important scheme of harnessing the Cauvery Falls for supplying electrical energy to the Kolar Gold Mines was undertaken during this period and the scheme began to yield a handsome revenue from 1902-03.

Third period :
from 1904-05
to 1908-09.

The details of the progress of revenue for each year in this period are given in Statement II (c). The total revenue in the several years was as under :—

1904-05	217·96 lakhs	1907-08	241·40 lakhs
1905-06	241·95 „	1908-09	222·71 „
1906-07	251·73 „		

During this period, the Bethamangala Water Works were undertaken, specially for the purpose of supplying

water to the Gold Mines. The Halat or Supari Cess was abolished with effect from the year 1907-08, and this accounts for a fall in revenue of about $3\frac{1}{2}$ lakhs. The large decline noticeable in 1908-09 was mainly due to the unfavourable agricultural conditions of the year, resulting in a heavy falling off under Land Revenue.

Statement II (d) shows the receipts under the several heads for each year during this period. Comparing the first and the last years of this period, it will be seen that there has been a growth of about 113 lakhs. Four new important sources of revenue were added during the decade, *viz.*—

Fourth
period : from
1909-10 to
1923-24.

- (1) Income-tax,
- (2) Surplus Revenue of the Assigned Tract,
- (3) Krishnarajasagara Works and
- (4) Sandalwood Oil Factories.

The revenue from Mohatarfa, which formed part of the State income, was surrendered to District Bodies from 1917-18.

The revenue in Mysore as elsewhere is derived partly from taxes properly so called and partly from sources which are not taxes in any sense of the term. The revenue heads are comprised of the following, *viz.*, Principal Heads of Revenue (Land Revenue, Forest, Excise, Miscellaneous Taxes, Stamps and Registration), Surplus Revenue of Assigned Tract, Mining Revenue, Interest, Departmental Receipts and Revenue from Productive Works, (*viz.*, Railways, Krishnarajasagara Works, Cauvery Power Scheme, Sandalwood Oil Factories, Kolar Gold Field Water Works). The more important of the special sources of revenue are noticed in the following paragraphs.

(b) Special
Departments
of Revenue
or Sources of
Revenue.

Mining
Revenue.

This source of revenue began to be developed in the year 1886-87. In his address to the Representative Assembly of October 1886, Dewan Sir K. Seshadri Iyer observed as follows :—

“The recent revival of the gold mining industry under the influence of the favourable results obtained by the Mysore Gold Mining Company in Kolar promises to have an important bearing on the prosperity of the country. Mining operations are being already prosecuted with renewed vigour by several companies in the neighbourhood of the Mysore Company's Mines, while elsewhere other companies are preparing to begin or resume work. In the Kolar Field especially, the works undertaken are on an important scale, shafts of great depth have been sunk through the most promising reefs, costly machinery has been erected for extracting and crushing the ore and substantial buildings have sprung up all round for the housing of those engaged on the mines.

It is now beyond doubt that gold bearing strata have been reached and gold in considerable quantities is being brought to the surface day by day. Already Rs. 33,368 have been paid into His Highness' Treasury by one Company alone (namely, the Mysore Company) as royalty for the gold extracted. But in forecasting the future of this industry, it is needless to say that it behoves us to speak with great caution, for in Gold Mining everywhere there is always an element of speculation and uncertainty.”

The revenue from this source was only Rs. 1·17 lakhs in 1881-82 and it dwindled down to 47 thousand in 1886-87. The improvement in the subsequent years, till 1903-04, when the revenue amounted to 18½ lakhs, was due to the increased output of gold from the mines and consequential increased royalty due. The royalty payable to Government, according to the leases of 1911, is 5 per cent on the value of gold produced, and 2½ per cent on the dividends paid by companies. For a period of five years subsequent to the year 1903-04, there was a steady decline of revenue under this head owing to the exhaustion of some of the mines and the comparatively

less output of gold by others. There was, however, a revival from the year 1910-11 till 1916-17, from which year there has again been a perceptible falling off attributable to the reduction of the output of some mines. The revenue under this head was mostly received in Sterling in London. The fluctuations in the silver value of sterling in recent years have considerably affected the income under this head. But this factor has been to some extent offset by the premium which gold has commanded owing to the conditions created by the war.

The scheme of harnessing the Cauvery Falls at Sivasamudram for the production of electric power and its transmission for the service of the Kolar Gold Mines and other industrial undertakings in different parts of the State was started in 1900-01 and agreements were also entered into with the Gold Mining Companies for the sale of power for working the machinery. This large scheme has been undertaken in different stages. The first installation for 6,900 horse power at a cost of about Rs. 42½ lakhs was completed in about two years and it began to yield a handsome revenue from 1902-03. Arrangements for a second installation for 5,750 horse power were made in 1903-04, for the third installation for generating another supply of 2,000 horse power was completed in 1907 and for the fourth installation for an additional 4,000 horse power was completed in the year 1911-12 along with another important project for the construction of a large reservoir on the Cauvery at Kannambadi (now called Krishnaraja Sagara) for the purpose of providing necessary storage of water for ensuring regular power supply to the Gold Mines and for extension of irrigation. The State having guaranteed a constant supply of power throughout the year by means of the storage works, the Mining Companies agreed to raise the rate per horse power from £ 10 to £ 12 for the whole

Cauvery
Power
Scheme.

quantity of power supplied for a period of ten years. The revised contract under which the cost of power has been raised to £ 12 came into force from the beginning of 1915-16 and the perceptible increase in the income under this head since is due partly to the enhancement in the rate and partly to additional power taken by the mines from the new installations. There is another factor which accounts to some extent for the variations in the revenue under this head in recent years; the revenue derived from the sale of power is receivable in sterling in London and the silver equivalent of the sterling receipts is affected by the rise and fall in exchange. The fourth installation was completed in 1915 and the fifth in 1918. By the completion of the sixth installation sanctioned in 1919 and costing about Rs. 48½ lakhs, the generating station at Sivasamudrum was rendered capable of producing 34,000 horse power. A seventh installation for an extra 14,000 horse power, estimated to cost about Rs. 34½ lakhs, was sanctioned in July 1925.

Surplus
Revenue of
the Assigned
Tract.

The claim of the Mysore Government to the surplus of the Civil and Military Station, Bangalore, accruing from 1884-85 was recognised by the Government of India in 1913 and the arrears accumulated to the end of March 1911 were paid in two years 1913-14 and 1914-15. The fluctuations in the receipts in the subsequent years are due to the varying nature of the yearly surpluses and to the payments not being made annually. The payment of this revenue for the three years 1918-19, 1919-20 and 1920-21 had been withheld under the orders of the Secretary of State for India but as the result of renewed negotiations in the matter a part of the withheld revenue of the three years mentioned above was paid in 1922-23 and 1923-24. The future claims of the Mysore Government to the surplus revenues of the Assigned Tract are regulated by a new agreement which has been reached

and according to which the Government will receive only three-fourths of the surplus which will be calculated with reference to datum line representing the normal annual expenditure of the administration of the tract, the remaining one-fourth being credited to the Tract for development purposes, it being stipulated that all income from productive works financed from the revenues of the Civil and Military Station should be treated as Revenue of the Tract and in the event of the Capital outlay on any productive works being found both by the Tract and the Station Municipality, the net revenues shall be shared by them in the ratio of their contribution to that Capital.

The gross expenditure under the old Rulers may be said to have varied from Rs. 70 to 90 lakhs. It is indeed true that in some of the latter years of the administration of Maharaja Krishnaraja Wodeyar III the expenditure was so high as 120 lakhs.

(c) Brief survey of the fluctuations of Revenue from 1800-81 and growth of Expenditure since 1881. Expenditure previous to British Administration.

For the purpose of this survey of the fluctuations of expenditure, it will be convenient to divide the period of the British Administration in Mysore into two epochs, the first from 1831-1861 and the second from 1861-1881. The average annual expenditure during each successive decade on the first epoch was Rs. 66½, 68½ and nearly 80 lakhs respectively while, during the next two decades of the second epoch, it had risen to Rs. 101½ lakhs and Rs. 107½ lakhs. The first epoch was marked by the steady progress of administrative reform in all Departments without introducing a radical change into any. The second epoch saw both the beginning and the end of a change which had for its object the organisation of every Department of the Administration in accordance

Fluctuations of Expenditure.

with the standard prevailing in the British Provinces. It was decided not to maintain an unfructifying cash balance in the Treasury; large sums were spent upon the restoration of irrigation works and repair of tanks on the serial system and upon roads in all parts of the State; the introduction of European officers, the formation of new Departments and increased pay to subordinate establishments involved material additions to the ordinary expenditure of the Administration. The analysis of Civil charges as under will show the Departments under which the increase mainly arose and the subsequent reductions.

Head	1852-53	1861-62	1863-64
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
General Charges	2,34,000	3,50,000	3,35,000
Revenue and Judicial	8,19,000	11,81,000	15,38,000
Revenue Survey	38,000
Inam Commission
Sayar and Abkari	2,08,000	2,60,000	97,000
Forests	18,000	53,000	82,000
Stamps	43,000
Post Office	48,000	95,000	95,000
Jails	16,000	25,000	1,06,000
Registration
Police	3,25,000	3,94,000	4,97,000
Political pensions	82,000	78,000	58,000
Service Pensions and Gratuities ...	1,000	14,000	86,000
Medical Department	35,000	64,000	86,000
Education	6,000	43,000	73,000
Miscellaneous	64,000	47,000	1,90,000
Refunds of Revenue	4,000
Head	1872-73	1875-76	1880-81
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
General Charges	3,25,000	3,65,000	24,62,000
Revenue and Judicial	16,20,000	17,37,000	
Revenue Survey	2,47,000	2,89,000	
Inam Commission	85,000	75,000	41,000
Sayar and Abkari	59,000	72,000	14,000
Forests	1,86,000	2,85,000	83,600
Stamps	18,000	13,000	13,600
Post Office	1,51,000	1,60,000	1,07,400
Jails	1,10,000	1,23,000	1,66,600
Registration	17,000	20,000	24,000
Police	4,45,000	5,70,000	4,85,000
Political Pensions	66,000	64,000	3,13,800
Service pensions and Gratuities ...	1,14,000	1,79,000	...
Medical Department	1,30,000	1,49,000	1,58,000
Education	2,45,000	2,45,000	1,62,000
Miscellaneous	1,81,000	8,51,000	1,46,000
Refunds of Revenue	40,000	97,000	...

GROWTH OF EXPENDITURE.

The expenditure of the State during this period was on a progressive scale corresponding to the improvement in revenue. Having stood at about Rs. 119½ lakhs in the beginning of the year 1881-82, the expenditure rose to Rs. 156·86 lakhs at the end of the period.

First period :
1881-82 to
1893-94.

The details of expenditure under each head are given in statement II (e). The special features of expenditure during this period are the following :—

Annual payments of Rs. four lakhs were made from the current revenues towards interest and the reduction of the famine loan of Rs. 80 lakhs due to the Government of India, till this loan was discharged in full in 1888-89 out of the proceeds of the English Railway Debenture loan of £ 1,200,000 obtained through the Southern Mahratta Railway Company and the Secretary of State.

The annual payments of four lakhs since that year were formed into a fund for the redemption of the above sterling loan. The subsidy due to the British Government remained at Rs. 24½ lakhs, the addition of 10½ lakhs provided by the Instrument of Transfer being postponed till the 31st March 1896.

A local Railway Debenture loan of Rs. 20 lakhs was raised in 1882-83 with the sanction of the Government of India bearing interest at 5 per cent and the capital outlay on Railway during this period was met partly out of this loan of Rs. 20 lakhs and the annual current revenues to the extent of Rs. 19·80 lakhs and partly out of the funds obtained from sterling Railway loan.

During the last two years of this period, there was an additional expenditure due to the organisation and equipment of the Imperial Service Cavalry and Transport Troops.

The transfer of the local Anche to the Imperial Postal Department was effected on 1st April 1889.

The detailed statement of expenditure during this period is exhibited in statement II (f). The total expenditure on all heads in 1894-95 amounted to Rs. 163·89 lakhs which rose to Rs. 220·08 lakhs at the end of the period.

Second
period :
1894-95 to
1903-04.

The main features of the expenditure of this period are as follows :—

As already stated, the subsidy payable to the British Government began to be paid at Rs. 35 lakhs from 1896-97. In 1898-99, the plague was responsible for an expenditure of Rs. 7½ lakhs for the adoption of preventive measures, besides for a loss of revenue of about Rs. 10 lakhs. The construction of Birur-Shimoga Railway line was undertaken and financed out of the current revenues. A sum of Rs. 24'81 lakhs was paid in the year 1899-1900 to the account of the sterling Railway Loan Sinking Fund to make up the present worth of the amount required for repaying the loan at maturity and avoid annual contributions on this account from revenue.

Third period
1904-05 to
1908-09.

The progress of expenditure during this quinquennium is detailed in Statement II (g). The total expenditure during the several years was as under :—

<i>Year</i>	<i>Lakhs of rupees</i>	<i>Year</i>	<i>Lakhs of rupees</i>
1904-05	218'87	1907-08	214'92
1905-06	231'39	1908-09	221'91
1906-07	229'78		

The principal items of special expenditure during this period were these :—

(1) Annual contribution of about Rs. four lakhs to the improvement of the Cities of Mysore and Bangalore.

(2) Contribution of Rs. five lakhs to the Indian Institute of Science as a building grant.

Fourth
period : 1909-
10 to 1920-21.

The details of expenditure during this period are given in Statement II (h). In this statement, the ordinary expenditure chargeable to revenue is distinguished from capital outlay not charged to revenue. The expenditure which is considered extraordinary is also shown separately.

The (normal) expenditure charged to revenue which was Rs. 194 lakhs at the commencement of this period rose to Rs. 332'02 lakhs at the end of the period. This large increase was due to various causes :—

(1) The Mysore University was started in 1916-17 and large grants were given for the advancement of education in every grade.

(2) The Economic Conference was organised and the Department of Industries and Commerce was created with a view to add to the resources of the people and non-tax revenues of the State.

(3) Most of the services were reorganised for the efficient performance of the growing volume of administrative work and also to afford relief to the low paid staff on account of the rise in prices of the necessities of life.

(4) Enhanced provision on account of famine and other reserves, to the extent of about Rs. 19 lakhs, was made with a view to stabilise the finances of the State in accordance with the scheme of Financial Settlement brought into force with effect from 1918. The allotment for these reserves was, however, stopped during the years 1921-1924, as the revenue of these years did not admit of any sums being set apart for them.

(5) A sum of Rs. 74½ lakhs was paid in the years 1914-15, 1916-17 and 1918-19 as the State's cash contribution to the Imperial Government on account of the Great European War which broke out in 1914 and to the Imperial Indian Relief and other funds.

(6) The rapid rise in interest and sinking fund charges of the last three years of the period is due to the floatation of the undermentioned loans for financing capital works :—

- (i) 1½ crores of rupees raised in 1921-22 at 6½ per cent repayable in twenty years.
- (ii) 30½ lakhs of rupees raised in 1921-22 at 6½ per cent repayable in twenty to thirty years.
- (iii) 1.9 crores of rupees raised in 1921-22 at 7 per cent repayable in ten years.

The British Indian system of accounts and audit, with suitable modifications adapted to the local conditions, was introduced into the State in 1863. The system was continued practically without change after the Rendition. The designation of the Deputy Accountant-General who had been in charge of the Account Department for twenty years was altered in 1882 to Comptroller. In addition to the usual audit conducted by the Departmental officers,

(d) Brief description of the system of accounts and audit and the organization and working of the Financial Department. Accounts and audit.

the State accounts have been examined at various times by special auditors of high financial experience, selected for the purpose, from outside the State. The first of such audits was in 1872 by Mr. Taylor, the next one in 1878 by Mr. Westland, and the third in 1896 by Mr. Biddulph. The accounts of the Regency period were reviewed by Mr. Keirnander. The work relating to the Financial Department was separated from the Account and Audit Department and a separate Financial Secretariat was organised in the year 1903-04.

Till the end of June 1916, the office of the Financial Secretary was held by the Comptroller (*ex-officio*) and as the combined charge was considered too heavy for a single officer, a readjustment of work in the Financial and Account Department was sanctioned with effect from 1st July 1916 and a full-time Financial Secretary appointed. Mr. K. L. Datta, a retired Accountant-General of the Government of India, was appointed in the latter part of 1916 for thoroughly reviewing the existing system of Accounts and Finance in all the Departments and suggesting improvements.

Financial
Settlement.

The most important of his suggestions was the Financial Settlement for regulating the growth of expenditure in the various Departments of the State so as to check extravagance while securing the utilisation of the resources of the State for purposes of progress and advancement in all directions. This subject had been under the consideration of Government for some time and Mr. K. L. Datta, Special Officer, submitted his proposals in March 1917 on the subject after a careful study of the growth of revenue and expenditure for some years past and the prospects and necessities of the future. Government accepted the scheme as formulated by him and the Budget Estimates of 1917-18 were framed in accordance with that scheme. The essential features of the Scheme were:—

(i) Provision for the reserves considered necessary for the financial stability of the State, such, for instance, as the Mining Revenue, Capitalisation Fund, the Reserve for Irrigation Capital, a Sinking Fund for Capital Expenditure from borrowed funds, a reserve for special non-recurring expenditure, a Famine Insurance reserve and a reserve to meet the interest on capital expenditure during the construction of productive works and the losses inevitable during the first few years after construction.

(ii) The division of the Departments of the State into groups and the assignment to them of a standard of the normal annual revenue of the State under each major head remaining after providing for the reserves referred to above.

This settlement was fully in force only for a year and it had to be given up as the resources on which it counted failed and the annual budgetary position became one of a deficit until 1922-23 from which year the state of equilibrium has been regained as the result of measures adopted according to a triennial policy of financial rehabilitation.

The Scheme, in view of the interest that might attach to it in normal times, may be briefly considered here in the two aspects mentioned:—

(1) *Departmental Settlement*.—The whole of the Administration was divided into four groups of revenue-producing Departments, namely:—

- (i) The principal Heads of Revenue,
- (ii) Surplus Revenue of the Assigned Tract,
- (iii) Mining Revenue (Net),
- (iv) Interest and Productive works;

and eight groups of spending Departments, namely:—

- (i) Direct demands upon Revenue,
- (ii) Palace,
- (iii) Civil Administration,
- (iv) Protection and Army,
- (v) Subsidy,
- (vi) Public Works,
- (vii) Local Self-Government, and
- (viii) Moral and Material Development.

(2) *Financial Reserves*.—Provision was made for the reserves necessary for the financial stability of the State.

**Departmental
Settlement.**

The general principles of the Departmental Settlement were :—

(a) A standard of the normal annual revenue of the State under each major head was determined and after providing for the reserves necessary for the financial stability of the State, the balance of revenue was allotted to the different departments for meeting their present scale of expenditure as well as their immediate requirements for improvements.

(b) The different departments were to get these amounts as annual assignments as also a definite share of growth of revenues in accordance with their relative importance, in order to enable them to meet the normal growth of expenditure necessitated by the growing needs of the administration, the departments classified under Moral and Material Development getting the largest share. If there was an actual decrease in the revenue in any year, the deficiency was to be met by the departments at the rates of growth of revenue allotted to them by reduction of their expenditure in different directions.

(c) A *pro forma* account for groups of departments was to be kept and in it each group was to be credited with its initial assignment for expenditure and its share of growth of revenue under the scheme and it was to be debited with the actual expenditure incurred, the unspent balance, if any, being carried forward from year to year, so that, schemes for additional expenditure might be considered with reference to the resources available for the groups concerned. Each group was thus in a position to know to what extent additional expenditure could be incurred to improve its efficiency and schemes sanctioned for one group would not interfere with schemes for other groups.

(d) The allotments made to the different groups, which were not actually spent during the year, were to be charged off the revenue account of each year under the head "unspent allotments added to departmental balances."

Similarly, when expenditure was incurred from past accumulations of a group, the excess over the allotment for the year was to be deducted from the total expenditure of the year under the head "expenditure met from departmental balances." The unspent allotments or expenditure

met from past balances would not thus affect the revenue surplus or deficit of the year concerned.

According to the Settlement, only a part of the revenues derived from the Gold Mines was to be applied towards meeting the ordinary expenditure of the State, while 60 per cent of it was to be set aside to form a fund which accumulating at compound interest would in a short period amount to a sum sufficient to yield an annual income equal to the portion of revenues from the Gold Mines used for meeting the ordinary requirements of the State.

Financial
Reserves.

The scheme also provided for a larger reserve of Rs. five lakhs in lieu of Rs. two lakhs per annum for meeting the expenditure and the loss of revenue which would devolve on the State should it have the misfortune to be visited by a famine.

Provision was also made for some other special reserves which are necessary to secure financial stability, namely:—

(1) a reserve of Rs. nine lakhs per annum to meet the interest on capital expenditure during the construction of productive works and the losses inevitable during the first few years after their construction;

(2) a sinking fund payment of Rs. two lakhs per annum for capital expenditure met from borrowed funds;

(3) a reserve of Rs. five lakhs for meeting a part of the capital expenditure on irrigation works which usually take a longer time to yield their full return than railways and industrial works; and

(4) a reserve of Rs. three and a half lakhs per annum to meet special charges which, though not recurring annually, have to be incurred at periodical intervals.

CURRENCY AND BANKING.

Under this head, some of the Notifications and Regulations making currency arrangements in British India applicable to Mysore may be mentioned.

(a) Notifica-
tions and
Regulations
applicable in
Mysore.

Coinage.

Under a Notification of the Government of India, dated 22nd November 1870, the Indian Coinage Act of 1870 was extended to Mysore and, under that arrangement, the coins of the Government of India were made legal tender in the State in the cases in which payment made in such coins would, under the law for the time being in force, be a legal tender in British India and laws and rules for the time being applicable to the coins in British India apply to coins current in the State. This provision of the law which was reproduced as article 13 of the Instrument of Transfer and article of the Mysore Treaty is embodied in the Mysore Coinage Regulation of 1900.

Currency.

Under the Notification of the Government of India, dated February 1879, Madras circle currency notes were legal tender in Bangalore. Under the Emergency Regulation, XI of 1918, universal currency notes and other currency notes of the Government of India issued within the Madras circle were made legal tender in the whole of the Mysore State. The provisions of this Emergency Regulation have been permanently placed on the Statute Book by Regulation V of 1919 and, under this law, a universal currency note and any other currency note issued within the Madras circle of issue, under the Indian Paper Currency Act for the time being in force in British India, is a legal tender to the amount expressed in such note.

(b) Banking
Institutions
in Mysore.

With a view to afford banking facilities for development of trade and industries within the State by utilising local capital, the Bank of Mysore was started in 1913 under the auspices of the Government of His Highness the Maharaja of Mysore. Certain concessions were allowed to the Bank, of which the maintenance in the Bank of a minimum balance equal to half the paid-up capital for a limited period was the most important. After ten years of the Bank's working, the relations between the Govern-

ment and the Bank were placed on a closer and more stable basis than was possible at the time of starting it. The principal points of the new agreement concluded with the Bank in August 1923 are:—

(a) To obtain the approval of the Government to the appointment of the President of the Board of Directors ;

(b) To appoint duly qualified Banking experts as the Manager and the Deputy Manager, with the approval of the Government, to manage its affairs ;

(c) In addition to the Auditor appointed by the shareholders, the Government to appoint an officer to audit the accounts of the Bank yearly or oftener ;

(d) To publish such accounts as the Government may desire in the *Mysore Gazette* for the information of the public ;

(e) Not to lend money on the security of immoveable property except as collateral security ;

(f) Not to engage in foreign Exchange operations ;

(g) Give due consideration to any advice which may be tendered by the Government concerning the management of the business and employment and investment of the funds of the Bank ;

The Government on their part agreeing to---

(h) Maintain a current account in the Bank.

(i) Entrust to the Bank the work relating to Government payments and investments in India ;

(j) Empower the Bank to draw supply bills on Treasuries and to receive amounts tendered by the public at all District and Taluk Treasuries for remittance to Head Office of the Bank ;

(k) Authorise the Bank to pay interest on Mysore Government loans :

(l) Maintain the original deposits of ten lakhs in the Bank for a further limited period ;

(m) The gradual transfer of Treasury and Public Debt work to the Bank ;

(n) The currency of the new agreement to be for a period of five years.

This subject has been dealt with fully in Chapter II— Agriculture, under Section VIII Agricultural Credit. Agricultural Banks.

Government
Savings Bank.

The Mysore Government Savings Bank was started in July 1870 at all Taluk and District Treasuries as well as in the State Huzur Treasury, Bangalore. As the name implies, the Bank is intended for facilitating the deposits of savings. The minimum amount of deposit received is 4 annas. By a Notification of 23rd June 1873, the provisions of the Government of India Savings Bank Act of 1873 were introduced to the Mysore State. This Act is still in force as amended by Regulations II of 1911 and Nomination Regulation. The rate of interest on the Savings Bank deposits, which was three and four-sevenths per cent, was altered to three and one-eighth per cent in 1897 and, from 1917, interest on deposits outstanding for a period of not less than a year is calculated at five per cent and on those outstanding for not less than six months at four per cent, the rate of three and one-eighth per cent being applicable only to deposits left in the Bank for less than six months. There is no restriction as regards the maximum amount of deposits at the credit of a depositor. The total amount at the credit of depositors at the close of the year 1920-21 was 76½ lakhs of rupees.

Feeder Banks.

In order to afford full facilities to the Public, rural as well as urban, to lay by their savings however small, and thereby foster habits of economy and thrift among the people of Mysore and also to utilise their savings productively, the Government sanctioned in 1916 the establishment of "Feeder Banks" in the State. The term "Feeder Banks" comprises Village Savings Banks started in rural areas, Savings Associations started in large offices, schools, factories, etc., and Collecting Savings Banks started in district head-quarters and other large towns. There were 89 Village Savings Banks and 224 Associations working at the end of 1920-21. Collecting Savings Banks have been established in the Cities of Bangalore and Mysore and at Bowringpet. The scheme of Village

Savings Banks was, however, abolished during the year 1922-23, when most of the Savings Associations also ceased to work.

STATEMENT NO. I—SHOWING THE REVENUE OF THE
STATE FROM 1865-66 TO 1880-81.

Year	Land Revenue	Forests	Abkari	Sayar	Mohatarfa	Salt
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1865-66 ...	77,25,767	3,42,959	10,01,944	8,88,699	3,78,304	15,850
1866-67 ...	66,56,799	3,66,012	8,47,964	5,67,341	2,30,047	8,480
1867-68 ...	80,92,251	4,10,012	9,69,189	7,07,125	3,89,397	18,025
1868-69 ...	77,53,671	3,51,476	9,66,508	7,19,157	3,79,424	14,429
1869-70 ...	61,31,402	2,95,218	9,79,838	7,56,069	2,82,673	10,611
1870-71 ...	60,07,315	3,37,669	10,14,102	7,60,502	2,75,687	10,720
1871-72 ...	73,25,280	4,07,112	10,68,754	7,23,154	3,42,771	14,844
1872-73 ...	73,50,285	3,76,185	10,80,826	8,85,824	3,88,008	13,487
1873-74 ...	71,77,284	5,18,661	11,50,298	8,68,638	3,73,827	18,492
1874-75 ...	73,51,268	3,82,162	11,53,773	7,79,697	3,68,249	16,539
1875-76 ...	73,78,225	4,45,688	12,29,646	8,67,728	5,97,060	11,485
1876-77 ...	64,35,694	4,72,760	11,69,599	8,50,686	4,57,349	5,237
1877-78 ...	72,70,654	4,79,283	10,25,596	9,03,662	3,66,231	6,114
1878-79 ...	73,00,677	4,51,843	9,52,082	2,76,444	4,58,537	8,713
1879-80 ...	69,75,406	5,29,136	8,64,621	2,40,707	4,27,437	11,859
1880-81 ...	69,31,182	6,97,779	10,67,635	2,57,826	8,33,020	23,358

Year	Stamps	Post Office	Law, Justice and Police	Public Works Department	Other items
	8	9	10	11	12
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1865-66 ...	2,61,588	37,021	91,687	70,663	1,02,214
1866-67 ...	2,78,381	36,308	91,406	42,590	91,762
1867-68 ...	3,15,157	39,091	1,15,072	36,450	95,552
1868-69 ...	3,71,946	37,620	91,077	74,726	1,28,238
1869-70 ...	4,22,250	39,997	1,15,219	82,514	1,41,903
1870-71 ...	2,32,975	41,720	2,64,199	65,597	1,37,556
1871-72 ...	1,97,233	44,368	3,40,360	15,268	1,42,793
1872-73 ...	1,88,243	44,876	4,14,397	11,077	2,43,534
1873-74 ...	1,92,585	46,666	4,15,754	50,031	1,39,881
1874-75 ...	2,02,384	49,749	4,24,265	48,901	1,70,456
1875-76 ...	2,07,101	51,281	4,64,087	41,684	1,79,683
1876-77 ...	5,07,246	59,749	1,15,899	40,843	1,45,113
1877-78 ...	4,96,873	55,450	1,22,531	25,073	1,21,446
1878-79 ...	5,29,685	50,347	1,32,633	60,235	2,31,657
1879-80 ...	5,06,441	94,870	1,18,427	42,785	1,63,326
1880-81 ...	4,67,882	15,821	1,51,603	12,085	1,40,705

**STATEMENT II (a)—ACTUAL REVENUE RECEIPTS OF
TO 1893-94**

Heads of Receipts	1881-82	1882-83
1	2	3
A. PRINCIPAL HEADS OF REVENUE.	Rs.	Rs.
1. Land Revenue	70,20,842	70,21,777
2. Receipts from Gold Mines—		
(a) Royalty
(b) Deposits by lease holders, etc. ...	1,16,996	8
Total	1,16,996	8
3. Forests	7,05,619	6,88,248
4. Abkari (Excise)	12,73,528	11,96,656
5. Mohatarfa (Assessed Taxes)	2,67,385	2,64,238
6. Sayar (Land Customs)	4,42,547	8,52,938
7. Salt	12,950	18,099
8. Stamps	4,95,831	4,70,621
9. Registration	52,727	48,288
Total A	1,03,88,420	1,00,60,873
B. INTEREST.		
1. Interest on arrears of Revenue, etc. ...	15,523	14,479
2. Interest—		
(a) On investments in Government Securities.
(b) On current deposits in Madras Bank.
3. Premia on Government Securities sold.
4. Premia realized on Local Railway Loan.	11,709
Total B	15,523	26,188
C. DEPARTMENTAL REVENUE.		
1. Mint	5,000	...
2. Post Office	55,129	58,125
3. Law and Justice, including Jails ...	70,844	64,054
4. Police	4,448	4,446
5. Education	28,491	27,209
6. Medical	667	398
7. Minor departments	8,189	48,787
8. Stationery and Printing	4,679	8,025
9. Local Military Force	3,259	14
10. Miscellaneous	79,954	46,910
Total C	2,60,610	2,52,963
D. PUBLIC WORKS.	17,531	10,046
Total Revenue (A, B, C and D)	1,06,82,084	1,03,50,070
Railway receipts	1,68,907	2,99,983
Grand total	1,08,50,991	1,06,50,053

THE MYSORE STATE UNDER ALL HEADS FROM 1881-82
BOTH INCLUSIVE.

1883-84	1884-85	1885-86	1886-87
4	5	6	7
Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
73,34,476	66,83,886	76,41,241	87,09,602
576	2,255	9,902	47,023
...	...	28,965	4,225
576	2,255	38,867	51,248
6,27,288	6,57,564	8,83,098	9,98,364
12,29,737	11,79,625	11,68,722	11,78,165
2,81,442	2,65,102	2,94,927	3,35,104
2,88,426	3,40,699	3,91,139	4,36,340
26,455	24,464	21,623	26,107
4,65,089	4,42,791	4,80,479	5,15,326
46,962	41,339	50,459	56,014
1,02,95,146	96,40,725	1,09,70,555	1,23,06,270
13,382	17,744	33,334	46,217
...	45,549
...	40,158
...
22,996	23,820	21,539	...
36,373	41,564	55,273	1,31,924
26,128	3,103	77,936	1,482
53,616	61,607	65,303	68,008
60,959	69,490	63,970	49,983
1,229	6,157	3,586	3,879
23,966	32,348	24,322	23,588
2,848	3,893	2,348	8,015
43,161	86,187	75,452	85,748
14,879	6,164	5,052	12,357
12,567	69	149	5
50,036	1,60,372	72,953	59,255
2,94,889	3,79,390	3,91,071	3,07,320
9,366	9,296	13,854	12,994
1,06,35,579	1,00,70,975	1,14,30,753	1,27,58,598
3,11,429	3,78,126	4,43,021	1,13,468
1,09,47,008	1,04,49,101	1,18,73,774	1,28,71,976

STATEMENT

Heads of Receipts	1887-88	1888-89
	8	9
A. PRINCIPAL HEADS OF REVENUE.	Rs.	Rs.
1. Land Revenue	85,13,879	83,96,337
2. Receipts from Gold Mines—		
(a) Royalty	26,233	1,01,726
(b) Deposits by lease holders, etc. ...	7,200	6,800
Total	83,433	1,08,526
3. Forests	10,08,417	11,35,393
4. Abkari (Excise)	14,94,522	14,99,615
5. Mohatarfa (Assessed Taxes) ..	3,40,181	3,29,559
6. Sayer (Land Customs)	4,12,462	4,07,568
7. Salt	20,723	27,391
8. Stamps	5,05,550	5,55,746
9. Registration	53,823	59,695
Total A	1,23,82,990	1,26,19,740
B. INTEREST.		
1. Interest on arrears of Revenue, etc. ...	33,358	29,008
2. Interest—		
(a) On investments in Government Securities.	1,46,181	1,81,499
(b) On current deposits in Madras Bank.	61,666	56,651
3. Premia on Government Securities sold.
4. Premia realized on Local Railway Loan.
Total B	2,41,205	2,67,153
C. DEPARTMENTAL REVENUE.		
1. Mint	4,932	...
2. Post Office	74,300	76,206
3. Law and Justice, including Jails ...	70,038	64,698
4. Police	4,004	4,105
5. Education	23,911	26,159
6. Medical	12,190	3,522
7. Minor Departments	67,467	56,645
8. Stationery and Printing	4,541	6,908
9. Local Military Force	83	...
10. Miscellaneous	76,944	74,807
Total C	3,38,410	3,18,045
D. PUBLIC WORKS.		
	13,671	20,150
Total Revenue (A, B, C and D) ...	1,29,76,276	1,32,20,088
Railway Receipts	2,78,250	69,629
Grand Total	1,32,54,526	1,32,89,717

II (a)—*concl'd.*

1899-90	1890-91	1891-92 (15 months)	1892-93	1898-94
10	11	12	13	14
Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
89,21,825	87,12,705	80,64,283	94,52,210	94,40,167
1,96,638 ...	2,34,841 71,225	5,15,283 3,162	4,95,851 508	7,22,129 3,500
1,96,638	3,05,566	5,18,450	4,95,859	7,25,629
13,68,866 17,02,566 3,58,115 4,16,031 33,808 5,92,847 64,916	14,46,012 20,28,076 3,38,063 3,88,586 22,489 5,79,936 66,529	16,85,186 25,91,807 3,12,931 5,16,495 17,278 7,93,803 1,00,109	13,70,587 30,25,658 3,43,998 3,98,127 21,538 7,05,936 97,475	14,65,854 80,01,636 3,21,117 3,48,075 25,497 7,06,031 97,279
1,33,15,663	1,38,87,962	1,46,00,342	1,59,10,788	1,61,31,285
35,868 2,25,264 52,539	25,938 2,63,553 60,454	32,169 3,61,864 64,207 2,10,156 ...	36,995 1,93,482 71,566 26,967 ...	27,651 2,63,144 1,16,679 19,720 ...
3,14,671	3,49,945	6,68,396	3,28,410	4,27,194
211 2,132 73,541 3,57 33,194 8,739 52,732 4,267 633 68,861	26 ... 71,173 3,567 43,632 6,286 40,214 4,838 324 83,852 94,478 3,860 57,146 11,668 44,229 9,102 250 97,292	5,008 ... 81,538 1,676 53,618 6,282 44,288 4,118 1,067 1,02,983 82,545 1,928 81,019 11,759 48,907 4,762 2,302 1,06,546
2,48,157	2,53,912	3,18,025	3,00,523	3,39,768
15,792	16,687	30,794	15,501	23,252
1,42,94,283 1,79,574	1,45,08,506 1,24,987 7,762	1,56,17,557 4,26,146	1,65,55,222 4,03,922	1,69,21,499 4,38,595
1,44,73,857	1,46,41,255	1,60,43,703	1,69,64,144	1,73,60,094

STATEMENT

DETAILED STATEMENT OF THE REVENUE OF THE

Heads of Receipts	Actuals	
	1894-95	1895-96
1	2	3
	Rs.	Rs.
1. Land Revenue	95,67,323	97,45,807
2. Receipts from Mining Leases	7,34,527	7,74,885
3. Forests	13,81,516	12,92,223
4. Excise	81,93,107	83,90,949
5. Assessed Taxes (Mohatarfa)	2,61,538	2,66,504
6. Customs (Sayar)	4,41,852	4,29,178
7. Salt	18,234	22,551
8. Stamps	7,10,538	7,64,163
9. Registration	96,180	1,03,719
10. General Administration, Civil Departments, (Stationery and Printing).	5,264	8,612
11. Mint	6,557
12. Law and Justice	81,451	77,889
13. Police	1,459	1,217
14. Education	87,835	91,632
15. Medical	7,050	15,762
16. Scientific and Minor Departments	21,906	39,183
17. Interest	38,785	34,250
18. Miscellaneous	2,66,598	1,80,944
19. Military	1,827	4,607
20. Profit or loss, Mysore Surplus Investment Account.	5,31,303	4,24,013
Total Civil	1,74,77,288	1,76,24,175
Total including Public Works	1,74,44,136	1,76,47,313
22. Railways	5,74,354	6,20,674
23. Cauvery Falls E. P. T. Scheme
Total Mysore	1,80,51,490	1,82,67,987
Civil and Military Station	23,826	18,869
Grand Total	1,80,75,316	1,82,86,356

No. II (b).

GOVERNMENT OF MYSORE FROM 1894-95 TO 1903-04.

Actuals					
1896-97	1897-98	1898-99	1899-900	1900-01	1901-02
4	5	6	7	8	9
Rs. 93,30,861 10,49,161 9,90,622 32,91,228 2,62,098 2,94,061 14,654 7,64,397 1,03,238	Rs. 57,85,924 13,80,504 11,24,780 33,76,668 2,29,093 3,12,782 21,296 8,25,886 2,15,664	Rs. 95,34,042 11,63,525 31,73,967 32,72,059 2,17,639 3,19,336 19,746 6,44,294 88,648	Rs. 95,09,484 11,90,894 13,58,414 35,02,285 2,12,330 3,81,524 17,332 7,73,670 1,10,765	Rs. 98,21,374 14,44,946 12,58,289 36,17,212 2,15,632 3,10,346 14,004 7,94,218 1,24,684	Rs. 97,70,946 16,06,502 14,34,928 34,51,296 2,10,306 3,53,011 17,276 7,48,376 1,17,191
5,768 3,642 85,172 794 93,090 12,065 31,983 44,706 1,23,397 4,263	10,206 ... 57,364 84,784 94,646 18,588 21,769 62,921 2,63,444 7,847	5,766 2,085 71,336 20,031 79,744 21,687 32,196 1,26,448 2,27,630 10,204	7,599 ... 81,646 7,942 00,520 27,206 22,909 1,40,671 2,34,146 20,342	67,469 ... 78,154 5,269 94,975 28,974 22,715 84,081 1,68,343 14,493	8,448 ... 78,185 33,507 92,749 31,930 41,276 84,519 1,65,624 33,124
5,79,186	5,22,180	4,70,846	9,84,458	3,20,009	2,95,820
1,70,85,271	1,83,46,316	1,75,01,039	1,86,73,077	1,84,95,184	1,85,75,013
1,71,11,746	1,83,74,285	1,75,31,665	1,86,99,498	1,34,20,536	1,86,05,668
6,11,018 ...	9,05,305 ...	4,87,909 ...	3,04,244 ...	6,60,043 ...	5,09,105 ...
1,77,22,764	1,92,79,590	1,79,69,574	1,90,03,742	1,91,90,579	1,91,95,773
20,763	11,932	7,289
1,77,43,572	1,92,91,522	1,79,76,863	1,90,03,742	1,91,80,579	1,91,95,773

STATEMENT NO. II (b)—*concl'd*

Heads of Receipts				Actuals	
				1902-03	1903-04
				10	11
				Rs.	Rs.
1.	Land Revenue	1,00,29,861	97,99,989
2.	Receipts from Mining Leases	15,32,099	18,38,804
3.	Forests	15,14,476	15,96,121
4.	Excise	36,51,728	37,21,397
5.	Assessed Taxes (Mohatarfa)	2,05,499	2,58,834
6.	Customs (Sayar)	4,00,159	3,52,538
7.	Salt	21,722	21,070
8.	Stamps	7,15,886	7,36,223
9.	Registration	1,07,273	1,11,885
10.	General Administration, Civil Departments, (Stationery and Printing)	10,004	6,474
11.	Mint
12.	Law and Justice	89,442	77,252
13.	Police	26,848	62,554
14.	Education	1,01,040	1,03,863
15.	Medical	41,304	72,018
16.	Scientific and Minor Departments	56,391	52,878
17.	Interest	71,868	62,968
18.	Miscellaneous	2,52,509	2,40,002
19.	Military	21,849	46,068
20.	Profit or loss, Mysore Surplus Investment Account	1,90,823	1,91,537
Total Civil				1,90,40,176	1,93,50,615
Total including Public Works				1,90,65,101	1,93,81,265
22.	Railways	5,63,256	7,05,937
28.	Cauvery Falls E. P. T. Scheme	11,85,148	14,71,220
Total Mysore				2,08,13,505	2,15,58,422
Civil and Military Station			
Grand Total				2,08,13,505	2,15,58,422

STATEMENT II (c).

DETAILED STATEMENT OF THE REVENUE OF THE GOVERNMENT OF MYSORE FROM 1904-05 TO 1908-09.

Heads of Receipts	Actuals				
	1904-05	1905-06	1906-07	1907-08	1908-09
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1. Land Revenue	96,63,976	91,02,029	1,00,31,178	1,03,80,180	89,15,679
2. Receipts from Mining leases	17,05,113	17,91,877	16,46,914	15,82,978	15,96,475
3. Forests	13,24,167	20,90,663	19,16,319	22,76,716	18,03,091
4. Excise	38,15,742	38,43,699	39,76,930	41,83,400	43,63,383
5. Assessed Taxes (Mohatarfa)	3,06,140	3,24,432	3,29,650	3,16,444	2,43,615
6. Customs (Sayar)	3,63,873	3,25,550	3,67,677	2,451	98
7. Salt	16,402	11,411	18,638	10,176	4,902
8. Stamps	7,15,833	7,88,352	7,58,283	7,98,305	8,47,909
9. Registration	1,18,498	1,57,832	1,43,640	1,49,439	1,71,947
10. Mint
11. General Administration, Civil Departments (Sta- tionery and Printing.	6,430	11,507	9,996	9,268	8,990
12. Law and Justice	77,454	74,584	76,892	69,433	67,987
13. Police	21,138	24,430	36,433	23,071	15,376
14. Education	1,12,932	1,21,135	1,29,841	1,34,899	1,31,332
15. Medical	1,31,788	1,02,600	81,183	1,37,880	92,270
16. Scientific and Minor De- partments	45,896	63,436	75,184	75,137	82,334
17. Interest	85,078	95,570	99,828	1,76,901	1,14,753
18. Miscellaneous	1,30,950	1,74,873	1,50,589	1,51,195	1,39,029
19. Military	40,086	29,901	28,057	31,390	65,714
20. Profit or loss, Mysore Sur- plus Investment Account.	3,18,976	2,92,350	2,62,014	5,29,635	4,51,883
21. Public Works ordinary— (a) including sale of water to the Kolar Gold Fields (b) Sanitary Department ...	74,749	2,40,618	3,29,966	4,01,387	4,34,870
22. Railways	9,76,245	26,18,749	26,92,784	9,42,073	9,73,935
23. Cauvery Falls	11,45,017	19,09,456	20,11,555	17,58,346	17,46,295
Total Mysore	2,17,96,483	2,41,95,143	2,51,73,601	2,41,40,694	2,22,71,867
Grand Total	2,17,96,483	2,41,95,143	2,51,73,601	2,41,40,694	2,22,71,867

STATE
SHOWING REVENUE FROM
(In thousands)

Heads of revenue	1909-10	1910-11	1911-12	1912-13
1	2	3	4	5
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Principal Heads, Revenue ...	175,95	180,37	182,00	197,37
Surplus Revenue of Assigned Tract
Mining Revenue ...	16,11	17,99	19,02	19,21
Interest ...	6,32	7,99	5,61	11,86
Civil Administration ...	1,32	1,95	1 58	1,21
Protection ...	46	2,51	52	64
Public Works ...	71	1,05	1,42	1,49
Moral and Material Development	1,82	65	1,85	2,30
Army and Defence ...	12	38	68	66
Productive Works
Railways, Revenue Account ...	5,28	3,42	6,26	9,09
Productive Irrigation Works, Revenue Account
Cauvery Power Scheme, Net Revenue Account ...	9,35	9,175	10,41	10,67
Industrial and other Works, Revenue Account, Net ...	291	1,79	1,24	1,32
Total receipts ...	21,959	227,85	230,59	255,82
Extraordinary receipts

MENT II (d).

1909-10 TO 1923-24.

of rupees.)

1913-14	1914-15	1915-16	1916-17	1917-18	1918-19	1919-20
6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
204,60	192,96	209,50	229,82	229,12	214,01	251,13
...	...	1,10	10,02	...	9,28	...
18,89	18,75	20,00	17,60	16,24	14,46	12,44
14,97	15,57	10,57	8,12	13,58	9,91	13,34
1,54	1,55	1,53	8,17	2,86	2,84	2,89
59	69	84	85	1,80	88	1,09
1,05	1,20	1,08	1,22	1,54	1,82	1,26
2,47	2,39	2,72	2,88	3,23	3,65	5,12
65	50	58	86	33	46	67
...
8,87	7,86	10,06	11,23	14,28	15,86	18,06
...	...	8,81	3,61	8,73	3,23	3,18
9,77	10,88	11,62	12,32	14,07	13,28	8,47
1,45	1,33	1,06	-2,16	15,47	5,48	-4,57
264,85	253,18	273,97	299,04	315,25	294,16	313,08
80,00	9,23	51,81

STATEMENT II (d)—*ccncl*d.

In thousands of rupees.

Heads of revenue	1920-21	1921-22	1922-23	1923-24
	18	14	15	16
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Principal Heads, Revenue ...	2,44,74	248,73	251,93	258,80
Surplus Revenue of Assigned Tract	10,47	6,03
Mining Revenue ...	14,82	16,09	15,05	14,90
Interest ...	10,64	11,63	6,96	8,19
Civil Administration ...	4,17	2,59	3,22	5,53
Protection ...	96	1,07	1,24	1,52
Public Works ...	1,26	1,36	1,11	99
Moral and Material Development	3,21	2,73	2,69	2,65
Army and Defence ...	94	1,11	84	74
Productive Works
Railways, Revenue Account ...	10,90	6,80	10,17	12,12
Productive Irrigation Works, Revenue Account ...	3,69	5,06	6,27	28,74
Cauvery Power Scheme, Net Revenue Account ...	13,48	19,51	21,27	
Industrial and other Works, Revenue Account, Net ...	4,32	-4,17	-56	-7,68
Total receipts ...	313,12	312,05	330,70	332,57
Extraordinary receipts	13,27	5,00

STATEMENT II (e)

EXPENDITURE UNDER ALL HEADS FROM 1881-82 TO
1893-94 BOTH INCLUSIVE.

Heads of Expenditure	1881-82	1882-83	1883-84	1884-85
1	2	3	4	5
I. DEBT.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1. Famine loan—				
(a) Payments towards interest and reduction of principal.	4,00,000	1,99,404
(b) Mysore Railway loan, payment towards interest.	93,850	97,986	1,11,907	1,00,770
II. PAYMENT TOWARDS THE RAILWAY LOANS REDEMPTION FUND.	...	2,00,596	4,00,000	4,00,000
2. Interest on other accounts	51,429	52,919	57,503	58,666
3. Refunds ...	47,284	46,029	66,014	3,33,988
4. Land Revenue charges ...	12,34,381	11,78,842	15,31,061	13,21,006
5. Forests ...	3,97,529	4,56,778	5,14,821	6,28,914
6. Abkari (Excise) ...	28,591	26,865	55,113	60,273
7. Sayer (Land Customs) ...	13,187	14,096	13,229	14,429
8. Stamps ...	17,867	21,545	21,197	19,941
9. Registration ...	25,842	28,967	29,563	32,201
10. Mint ...	7,007	...	155	26
11. Post Office ...	1,35,676	1,36,920	16,664	8,437
12. Administration ...	2,70,641	2,78,575	3,08,113	3,59,656
13. Palace Charges ...	13,00,000	13,00,000	13,00,000	13,00,000
14. Law and Justice including Jails.	7,44,379	7,49,895	7,55,869	7,73,613
15. Police ...	5,80,401	5,96,034	6,22,801	6,77,871
16. Education ...	1,78,172	1,80,920	2,61,770	3,02,729
17. Muzrai ...	2,78,922	2,81,964	2,78,663	2,82,559
18. Medical ...	1,64,221	1,89,685	1,75,406	1,86,690
19. Minor Departments ...	75,724	88,365	1,04,141	1,11,523
20. Furlough allowances to Officers.	8,403	10,005	1,078	5,591
21. Allowances and Assignments under Treaties and engagements.	25,54,020	25,51,622	25,50,640	25,50,129
22. Pensions ...	2,51,789	2,40,937	2,67,878	2,90,191
23. Miscellaneous ...	2,23,961	79,478	97,968	1,20,263
24. Local Military Force ...	7,17,875	7,28,658	7,36,266	7,55,837
25. Discount paid on Local Railway Loan.
26. Public Works ...	15,79,906	19,82,076	21,91,404	19,90,629
27. Premia paid for Government of India pro-notes.	16,874	26,562	28,198	21,982
Total ...	1,18,98,591	1,17,40,723	1,22,97,517	1,27,12,819
Civil and Military Station charges
Total including C. & M. Station	1,18,98,591	1,17,40,723	1,22,97,517	1,27,12,819
Railway Total ...	3,81,566	3,65,039	7,00,750	6,63,840
Grand Total ...	1,17,81,157	1,21,05,762	1,29,98,267	1,38,76,658

STATEMENT

EXPENDITURE UNDER ALL HEADS

Heads of Expenditure	1885-86	1886-87	1887-88
	6	7	8
I. DEBT.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1. Famine loan—			
(a) Payments towards interest and reduction of principal.
(b) Mysore Railway loan, payment towards interest.	1,12,203	99,862	98,705
II. PAYMENT TOWARDS THE RAILWAY LOANS REDEMPTION FUND.	4,00,000	4,00,000	4,00,000
2. Interest on other accounts ...	86,092	92,891	1,10,039
3. Refunds ...	52,139	99,445	64,412
4. Land Revenue charges ...	15,51,695	13,14,487	15,88,839
5. Forests ...	7,21,255	4,57,634	4,87,076
6. Abkari (Excise) ...	1,17,632	1,86,535	2,15,976
7. Sayar (Land Customs) ...	16,165	12,938	12,969
8. Stamps ...	26,779	24,405	26,997
9. Registration ...	48,068	46,571	47,549
10. Mint
11. Post Office ...	122
12. Administration ...	4,90,420	4,82,760	5,43,011
13. Palace Charges ...	17,33,333	14,00,000	14,00,000
14. Law and Justice including Jails ...	10,00,999	8,32,168	8,58,166
15. Police ...	8,82,232	7,43,840	7,42,346
16. Education ...	4,33,437	3,98,197	4,31,014
17. Muzrai ...	3,80,971	3,15,351	3,10,388
18. Medical ...	2,56,341	2,37,840	2,49,322
19. Minor Departments ...	2,21,680	1,34,418	1,24,368
20. Furlough allowances to Officers ...	7,757
21. Allowances and Assignments under Treaties and engagements.	26,02,218	25,56,070	25,71,426
22. Pensions ...	3,57,370	2,68,715	2,54,284
23. Miscellaneous ...	2,23,326	3,42,780	2,03,129
24. Local Military Force ...	10,66,347	9,89,027	9,31,504
25. Discount paid on Local Railway Loan.
26. Public Works ...	27,37,289	†23,65,788	23,72,897
27. Premia paid for Government of India pro-notes.	1,11,661	56,723	1,25,781
Total ...	1,56,37,558	1,38,71,166	1,43,62,282
Civil and Military Station charges...
Total including C. & M. Station ...	1,56,37,558	1,38,71,166	1,43,62,282
Railway Total ...	19,50,293	26,60,045	13,24,586
Grand Total ...	1,75,87,851	1,65,31,211	1,56,86,868

† Sanitary Works.

II (e)—*concl'd.*

FROM 1881-82 TO 1893-94 BOTH INCLUSIVE.

1888-89	1889-90	1890-91	1891-92	1892-93	1893-94
9	10	11	12	13	14
Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
4,00,000	4,00,000	4,00,000	4,00,000	4,00,000	4,00,000
...	23,645	91,237	1,17,531	94,793	96,955
...
52,471	26,308	31,279	37,348	40,976	46,660
43,699	21,354	15,498	22,356	41,614	66,543
14,01,966	13,62,686	13,08,586	13,91,084	13,12,970	12,23,853
2,23,071	1,99,193	2,48,257	2,48,028	2,26,070	8,20,687
31,605	17,038	16,097	18,800	15,576	16,123
15,260	15,165	15,274	14,505	13,632	12,839
14,084	13,869	14,311	18,108	15,524	25,455
23,528	25,369	25,579	25,972	26,672	25,532
...	5,296	70,053	2,869	77,912	5,065
1,59,661	1,43,163	1,27,535	1,26,660	1,26,755	1,29,422
4,35,151	2,69,371	2,54,583	2,67,204	2,74,235	3,06,417
10,38,986	10,00,000	10,00,000	10,00,000	10,00,000	13,00,000
5,35,532	6,13,720	4,12,279	4,51,790	4,28,272	7,45,289
4,44,549	4,83,145	4,52,185	4,67,018	5,04,555	5,36,992
1,35,628	1,43,481	1,38,065	1,45,130	1,56,429	1,76,610
2,69,763	2,75,995	2,79,657	2,80,955	2,96,619	2,83,601
1,45,407	1,38,680	1,29,659	1,32,994	1,47,945	1,45,954
89,659	2,48,045	2,35,318	1,30,253	1,20,334	97,485
22,921	34,601	37,224	14,202	5,725	1,064
25,08,933	25,39,783	25,98,925	25,54,048	25,52,630	25,51,901
2,65,456	2,32,418	2,45,600	2,70,964	2,56,561	2,44,110
1,18,870	1,97,598	1,49,397	1,67,301	1,17,541	1,21,262
1,59,855	7,57,301	7,38,009	7,56,939	7,35,100	7,37,234
...	55,645	1,114	360	428	...
10,70,702	9,19,183	9,37,001	8,93,687	11,32,299	12,71,132
...	21,968
1,02,06,806	1,01,25,552	99,71,722	99,56,601	1,01,16,967	1,09,09,153
1,26,710	1,49,558	1,67,791	*10,647	3,143	...
1,08,33,516	1,02,75,110	1,01,39,513	99,66,248	1,01,20,110	1,09,09,153
15,99,639	13,37,237	9,46,069	5,86,848	6,43,881	1,15,486
1,19,33,155	1,16,12,347	1,10,85,602	1,05,53,096	1,07,63,991	1,10,24,639

* Disbursements made on account of charges for 1883-84.

STATEMENT

DETAILED STATEMENT OF THE EXPENDITURE OF THE
REVENUE FROM

Heads of Disbursements	Actuals	
	1894-95	1895-96
	Rs.	Rs.
1. Interest on Debt	1,01,700	1,01,420
2. Interest : Other Accounts	1,19,911	1,23,805
3. Refunds	64,860	1,03,909
4. Land Revenue	15,34,620	16,35,729
5. Forests	4,65,355	5,16,453
6. Excise (Abkari)	1,72,354	1,79,807
7. Sayar Customs	13,174	13,778
8. Stamps	32,793	41,846
9. Registration	49,615	48,940
10. Mint	11,645
11. Administration	6,11,571	6,65,919
12. Palace Charges	14,00,000	14,00,000
13. Law and Justice	8,75,552	8,99,595
14. Police	7,61,924	7,85,833
15. Education	4,93,605	5,11,635
16. Muzrai	3,38,616	3,26,595
17. Medical	2,55,296	8,11,588
18. Minor Departments	1,93,052	2,04,256
19. Civil Furlough Allowances, etc., to Officers.	25,60,510	26,38,761
20. Pensions	2,78,276	2,62,420
21. Miscellaneous	5,29,373	2,95,591
22. Mysore Local Force	9,77,652	9,81,470
23. Profit or loss, Mysore Surplus Investment Account.	1,44,583	1,12,710
24. Public Works	26,95,696	31,21,482
25. Sanitary Department	2,41,778	90,999
26. Railways	14,57,077	8,71,283
27. Cauvery Falls Electric Power Transmission Scheme.
28. Civil and Military Station	23,826	22,826
Grand Total ...	1,63,89,769	1,62,82,031

No. II (f).

GOVERNMENT OF MYSORE CHARGEABLE TO
1894-95 TO 1903-04.

Actuals					
1896-97	1897-98	1898-99	1899-00	1900-01	1901-02
Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
99,062	91,867	1,08,245	96,663	95,113	1,07,950
1,25,378	1,17,583	1,26,606	1,58,840	1,92,027	2,13,154
61,065	49,617	1,52,627	66,205	68,264	69,054
15,95,934	17,40,675	17,81,245	17,63,538	18,59,607	17,85,958
5,54,172	4,71,079	4,99,928	4,73,819	3,87,393	4,67,087
2,01,973	2,49,731	2,68,973	2,71,706	3,19,781	2,90,429
14,644	13,236	15,190	14,384	14,348	14,800
81,631	76,053	34,924	30,105	32,013	15,455
51,815	60,485	65,297	70,258	73,591	75,283
5,626	..	2,085
6,76,583	8,28,025	7,75,136	7,65,251	8,28,729	7,55,242
14,00,000	14,00,000	14,00,000	14,00,000	14,00,000	14,00,000
9,31,398	9,91,118	10,05,310	10,06,287	10,21,744	10,14,684
8,54,863	9,18,851	9,27,163	9,51,399	9,65,965	9,62,957
5,26,463	5,52,289	5,84,112	6,32,669	6,65,577	6,99,616
3,22,408	3,23,347	3,72,266	3,35,371	3,55,087	3,27,930
2,99,981	3,56,263	3,42,464	3,68,671	4,29,059	4,88,566
2,28,011	2,22,931	2,44,923	2,45,583	3,08,447	3,49,901
36,83,890	37,54,482	37,33,364	37,41,777	37,50,898	38,21,718
2,75,360	3,04,264	8,70,025	8,18,222	3,34,761	3,70,596
2,69,330	6,79,268	10,50,063	11,72,365	12,45,506	4,54,044
9,70,295	10,26,189	9,81,996	10,02,724	10,75,740	14,09,028
3,22,897	40,785	37,268	50,684	1,12,175	1,00,465
25,48,033	26,65,042	30,61,051	33,68,008	25,75,738	25,16,601
30,136	96,775	1,89,677	44,621	6,852	-15,160
9,56,625	17,10,194	13,76,951	37,67,270	10,46,618	11,18,651
...	20,87,515	25,67,309
20,863	11,932	7,289
1,70,58,284	1,85,97,851	2,00,22,117	2,21,16,615	2,12,24,176	2,14,61,022

STATEMENT NO. II (f)—*concl'd.*

Heads of Disbursements	Actuals	
	1902-03	1903-04
	Rs.	Rs.
1. Interest on Debt	65,801	1,675
2. Interest : Other Accounts	2,57,838	2,84,782
3. Refunds	89,643	2,30,695
4. Land Revenue	18,69,488	16,90,275
5. Forests	4,81,280	5,28,198
6. Excise (Abkari)	3,26,476	3,27,691
7. Sayar Customs	14,413	15,517
8. Stamps	27,400	26,943
9. Registration	79,637	81,427
10. Mint
11. Administration	7,40,934	7,68,722
12. Palace Charges	14,00,000	16,00,000
13. Law and Justice	10,15,319	10,09,545
14. Police	10,13,477	9,78,093
15. Education	7,09,588	7,48,527
16. Muzrai	8,27,702	3,28,662
17. Medical	4,97,137	5,69,488
18. Minor Departments	3,06,650	2,86,827
19. Civil Furlough Allowance, etc., to Officers.	83,26,828	38,25,521
20. Pensions	8,69,967	4,25,028
21. Miscellaneous	18,23,885	12,17,193
22. Mysore Local Force	14,48,729	13,45,426
23. Profit or loss, Mysore Surplus Investment Account.	57,303	4,203
24. Public Works	26,73,162	89,79,811
25. Sanitary Department...
26. Railways	6,87,413	7,67,254
27. Canvey Falls Electric Power Transmission Scheme.
28. Civil and Military Station
Grand Total ...	2,04,09,616	2,20,08,138

STATEMENT II (g).

DETAILED STATEMENT OF THE EXPENDITURE OF THE
GOVERNMENT OF MYSORE CHARGEABLE TO REVENUE
FROM 1904-05 TO 1908-09.

Heads of Disbursements	Actuals				
	1904-05	1905-06	1906-07	1907-08	1908-09
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1. Interest on Debt ...	50	50	9,268	2,571	1,224
2. Interest : Other Accounts ...	3,16,887	3,40,383	2,92,137	2,81,462	3,00,521
3. Refunds ...	2,31,637	2,50,913	2,29,266	2,00,812	1,89,448
4. Land Revenue ...	17,53,237	17,00,118	18,33,503	18,15,279	18,57,629
5. Forest ...	6,47,209	7,88,877	6,58,841	6,64,458	7,61,534
6. Excise ...	3,32,735	3,26,741	3,17,654	3,30,065	3,39,847
7. Customs ...	12,889	15,685	14,058	1,940	1
8. Stamps ...	26,756	26,286	25,701	26,845	36,111
9. Registration ...	85,563	87,166	85,502	82,174	84,074
10. Charges against mining revenue.	1,08,520	1,08,866
11. Administration ...	7,75,292	10,16,532	9,30,271	8,94,698	8,71,266
12. Palace charges ...	16,00,000	16,00,000	16,00,000	16,00,000	16,00,000
13. Law and Justice...	10,43,195	10,68,929	10,56,502	9,79,126	9,14,261
14. Police ...	9,75,390	9,92,467	9,89,384	9,16,369	9,58,425
15. Education ...	7,65,475	7,72,540	8,03,105	13,52,179	10,01,107
16. Muzrai ..	3,27,663	3,47,209	3,41,132	3,35,296	3,49,935
17. Medical ...	5,71,933	5,92,314	6,57,997	5,81,467	7,06,636
18. Minor Departments ...	2,90,637	3,35,960	2,90,161	2,28,293	2,62,963
19. Allowances, etc. ...	39,25,843	39,26,436	39,24,360	39,25,659	39,24,742
20. Pensions ...	4,21,598	4,55,763	5,39,976	6,22,006	6,66,995
21. Miscellaneous ...	7,42,095	6,66,664	6,33,542	4,58,793	3,31,900
22. Mysore Local Force ...	13,27,295	13,51,040	13,63,777	12,89,785	14,14,665
23. Profit or loss : (1) Cost of investment in Government of India securities	8,974	6,293	6,260	12,053	11,078
24. A. Civil charges including Public Works.	1,97,97,754	2,00,48,711	1,97,63,388	1,97,99,606	1,97,06,224
25. Railways ...	9,18,069	27,46,557	27,58,130	11,64,290	10,28,854
26. Cauvery Falls Electric Power Transmission Scheme.	11,72,009	3,44,602	4,57,034	5,28,118	14,56,789
Grand Total, Mysore ...	2,18,87,832	2,31,39,870	2,26,78,552	2,14,92,014	2,21,91,867

STATE

DETAILED STATEMENT OF EXPENDITURE OF THE
In thousands

Heads of Expenditure	1909-10	1910-11	1911-12	1912-13
1	2	3	4	5
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1. Direct Demands on Revenue.	30,86	31,08	40,84	29,93
2. Charges against Mining Revenue.	1,52	1,40	1,45	1,52
3. Interest and Sinking Funds	4,94	5,19	5,08	5,69
4. Palace	19,40	23,40	23,22	23,22
5. Civil Administration	23,45	25,35	26,21	24,91
6. Protection	22,97	28,32	23,31	23,78
7. Public Works	25,24	23,98	25,40	24,66
8. Moral and Material Development.	12,28	12,24	13,29	14,94
9. Local Self-Government ...	2,73	2,60	2,33	47
10. Army and Defence	48,92	48,54	49,25	48,56
11. Famine Relief and Insurance.	1,87	1,97	1,96	2,00
12. Miscellaneous Railway Expenditure.	11	12	17	2,24
13. Special Reserve for non-recurring Expenditure.
14. Add unspent allotments transferred to balances at credit of Departments.
15. Total	1,94,06	1,99,14	2,01,51	2,01,92
16. Deduct expenditure met from Reserves.
17. Total expenditure charged to Revenue.	1,94,06	1,99,14	2,02,51	2,01,92
18. Extraordinary Expenditure.
19. Capital outlay not charged to Revenue.	4,51	4,69	9,20	19,54

MENT II (h).

GOVERNMENT OF MYSORE FROM 1909-10 TO 1923-24
of rupees.

1913-14	1914-15	1915-16	1916-17	1917-18	1918-19	1919-20
6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
33,30	35,25	33,55	34,68	36,42	39,44	43,25
1,62	1,66	1,66	11,05	10,43	9,05	8,12
5,59	5,78	6,60	18,85	20,10	20,12	14,54
22,93	23,27	23,50	23,50	23,50	23,50	23,50
27,70	24,62	25,23	27,53	30,43	32,85	49,25
25,25	25,95	25,53	26,56	25,96	44,00	33,45
24,97	25,77	27,32	34,20	34,24	42,60	36,18
17,96	21,54	25,39	34,32	39,24	51,85	49,98
2,83	4,95	6,07	8,04	8,74	6,26	6,40
49,10	48,47	47,51	50,52	50,10	52,96	59,09
2,00	2,00	2,00	5,00	5,00	5,00	5,00
23	57	90	1,71	1,43	1,04	92
...	3,50	5,52	8,14	18,52
...	26,37	4,29	8,84
2,13,02	2,19,83	2,25,26	2,79,45	3,19,48	2,98,34	3,57,04
...	4,47	6,02	37,11	44,12
2,13,02	2,19,88	2,25,26	2,74,98	3,18,46	2,61,23	3,12,92
...	52,00	...	15,49	...	51,81	4,11
41,01	90,67	46,94	41,99	40,81	42,67	85,23

STATEMENT II (h)—*concl'd.*

In thousands of rupees.

Heads of Expenditure	1920-21	1921-22	1922-23	1923-24
	13	14	15	16
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1. Direct Demands on Revenue.	50,29
2. Charges against Mining Revenue.	2,02
3. Interest and Sinking Funds	21,75
4. Palace ...	23,50
5. Civil Administration ...	39,94
6. Protection ...	41,41
7. Public Works ...	37,16
8. Moral and Material Development.	60,92
9. Local Self-Government ...	5,50
10. Army and Defence ...	60,98
11. Famine Relief and Insurance.
12. Miscellaneous Railway Expenditure.	59
13. Special Reserve for non-recurring Expenditure.
14. Add unspent allotments transferred to balances at credit of Departments.
15. Total ...	3,44,11
16. Deduct expenditure met from Reserves.	16,26	16,82	1,00	7,80
17. Total expenditure charged to Revenue.	3,27,85
18. Extraordinary Expenditure.	4,43
19. Capital outlay not charged to Revenue.	1,10,91	1,12	51,11	21,35

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CHAPTER VI.

MEDICAL AND SANITARY.

1. THE ORGANIZATION OF THE MEDICAL AND SANITARY DEPARTMENTS.

Prior to the Rendition.

Direction. PRIOR to 1831, there was a Durbar Surgeon attached to the Court, who superintended His Highness' Hospital at Mysore. After the assumption of the Government by the British, the Surgeon to the Mysore Commission was stationed at Bangalore and had charge of the Bowring Civil Hospital, the Leper Hospital and the Lunatic Asylum, as well as the general control of vaccination, while another Medical Officer was Superintendent of the Central Jail and had the supervision of the Petta Dispensary.

There was a Civil Surgeon at the Head-quarters of each of the other two Divisions, who was also Superintendent of the Local Jail and Inspector of all Medical Institutions within the limits of the Division. The Deputy Surgeon-General, Indian Medical Department, for Mysore and the Ceded Districts, personally inspected the institutions at Bangalore and others which happened to lie in the routes of his official tours. He also acted as Sanitary Commissioner and Registrar of Vital Statistics.

In 1871, rules for the establishment of a Native Sub-ordinate Medical Department, in the grade of Hospital Assistants, for local service in Mysore, were sanctioned by the Government of India. The rules provided for the training of medical pupils to qualify them for the

grade of Hospital Assistants on stipends. The pupils, on completing their college career, and passing the prescribed examination were eligible to receive the designation of "Passed Medical Pupils," and a pay of Rs. 16 till promoted to the last grade of Hospital Assistants. The Hospital Assistants were divided into three classes on a pay of Rs. 25, 40 and 60 per mensem, promotion from class to class being earned after seven years' approved service and after passing a professional examination. The training consisted of two courses, one of a Pre-collegiate Course of two years during which period the pupils were attached to the Civil Hospitals and the other of a study of two years in the Medical College, Madras.

The Deputy Surgeon-General was withdrawn from 1st April 1880 and his administrative duties, so far as Mysore was concerned, were transferred to the Surgeon to the Mysore Commission.

After the Rendition.

A complete re-organisation of the medical establishment of the State was in contemplation since the Rendition, but it had to be postponed for some time in consideration of the inconvenience that it would cause to a number of medical subordinates by their reversion to the Madras service without previous notice. In May 1884, a definite scheme was laid down for a local medical service composed chiefly of duly qualified Indians. Under this scheme, it was considered sufficient to have in the State Service two competent European Medical officers, one, a covenanted officer of high standing, to be the head of the Medical Department and Chief Adviser to the Government, having charge of all institutions at Bangalore, and the other, to have charge of medical duties at Mysore. The head of the Medical Department being the *senior* of the covenanted medical officers

Direction.

(Surgeon) in the service, came to be designated as "Senior Surgeon." The other officer, who was Durbar Surgeon at Mysore, was also the Chemical Examiner till 1897. Till March 1886, the services of three covenanted Medical Officers of the British service then serving in Mysore were retained.

The local Medical Officers were divided into:—

(1) Surgeons of three grades on a pay of Rs. 350, 450 and 500 rising from one grade to the next higher after five years' approved service; (2) Assistant Surgeons of three grades on a pay of Rs. 100, 150 and 200 rising from one grade to the next higher after an approved service of five to seven years; and (3) Hospital Assistants.

In 1887, a grade of Senior Hospital Assistants was created and in 1888 a grade of Sub-Assistant Surgeons of three classes on Rs. 80, 100 and 120. The number of grades of Sub-Assistant Surgeons was subsequently reduced to two, 1st class Rs. 90 plus 30 allowance and 2nd class Rs. 70 plus 30.

Improvement
of the service
in 1897.

In 1897, the Government, with a view to strengthen the Medical Service and improve the pay and prospects of the members of the various grades, sanctioned certain proposals of the Senior Surgeon and, consequently, the number of grades of Civil Surgeons was reduced from three to two, the first class carrying with it a pay of Rs. 600 and the second class, Rs. 500. The number of grades of Assistant Surgeons was increased from three to four and the pay was fixed at Rs. 300, 250, 200 and 150 a month. A grade of Specialists for officers engaged on special lines of Medical work was recognised and the pay of the two officers then working as specialists (one as Oculist and another as Chemical Examiner and Bacteriologist) was fixed at Rs. 300 maximum. The two classes of Sub-Assistant Surgeons on Rs. 90 plus 30 and 70 plus 30 were increased to three, on a pay of Rs. 120,

100 and 80 respectively, promotion from one class to another being given after two or three years of approved service. The number of Sub-Assistant Surgeons was also raised from 6 to 12. For the special benefit of women doctors, a grade of Apothecaries was sanctioned, consisting of four classes on Rs. 75, 100, 125 and 150, promotion from one class to the next higher being regulated by approved service of five years. Apothecaries and Senior Hospital Assistants were declared eligible for promotion to the grades of Honorary Sub-Assistant Surgeons and Assistant Surgeons on a pay ranging from Rs. 100 to 150. The question of having a third class of Civil Surgeons on a pay of Rs. 400, which was left undecided in 1897, was settled in July 1900 by the promotion of certain Assistant Surgeons to that grade.

Although the prospects of the superior officers of the department were improved from time to time, that of medical subordinates remained unchanged, till 1911. In that year, their designation was changed from "Hospital Assistants" to "Senior Sub-Assistant Surgeons" on Rs. 80 and 70 and Sub-Assistant Surgeons of four classes on Rs. 30, 40, 50 and 60. The Sub-Assistant Surgeons were styled "Assistant Surgeons" and "Civil Surgeons" were ordered to be styled as "Surgeons."

Reorganization in 1918.

In order to increase the efficiency of the department and to secure reasonable prospects to the members of the various grades, Government, in July 1918, sanctioned the reorganization of the department at an additional recurring cost of Rs. 80,000 per annum, by adding to the number of superior officers and also revising the pay of the several grades. The class of specialists was abolished. Excluding the Senior Surgeon, the number of Surgeons

was increased to 16 and distributed among the several grades as shown below :—

<i>Grade</i>	<i>No.</i>	<i>Pay</i>	<i>Grade</i>	<i>No.</i>	<i>Pay</i>
1st class ...	1	800-50-900	4th class ...	8	500
2nd class ...	2	700-50-800	5th class ...	3	450
3rd class ...	3	550-25-700	6th class ...	4	400

The strength of Assistant Surgeons was increased from 29 to 34 permanent and one temporary for Krishna-rajasagara Works, and they were placed in two grades :—

<i>Grade</i>	<i>No.</i>	<i>Pay</i>
1st class ...	16	200-20-360
2nd class ..	18	120-10-200

The grade of Honorary Assistant Surgeons was abolished. To provide for proper recruitment to the grade of Assistant Surgeons, the entertainment of Medical Graduates on a pay of Rs. 80-5-100 was sanctioned, the number of Medical Graduates that could be borne in the department being not more than 9 at any time. The pay of the Lady Apothecaries was raised from Rs. 75-25-5-150 to Rs. 75-5-200. With a view to make the women's branch of the service more attractive, the following scale of allowances was sanctioned :—

Lady Surgeons : Rs. 50 per mensem.

Lady Assistant Surgeons and Apothecaries : Rs. 30 per mensem.

Lady Sub-Assistant Surgeons : Rs. 15 per mensem.

With a view to better, as far as possible, the pay and prospects of Sub-Assistant Surgeons, their scale of pay was revised as detailed below :—

	<i>No.</i>	<i>Rs.</i>
Senior Sub-Assistant Surgeons	6	90
Do do	12	80
Sub-Assistant Surgeons	172	35-10-5-65
(and after 20 years' service)		65-5-5-70

Two places in the Second Grade of Assistant Surgeons

have also been made available to Sub-Assistant Surgeons of proved merit.

Of the 50 officers constituting the gazetted ranks of the service in July 1925, as many as 10 held professional qualifications obtained in British Universities, and two had the benefit of foreign travel and study of the working of medical institutions in the different countries visited, while the rest were graduates in Medicine and Surgery of the Indian Universities.

A medical school was established in 1881 for the purpose of training Hospital Assistants but was closed in 1886, and scholarships were given to students to go through a course in the Madras or Bombay Medical Colleges. In view of certain difficulties expressed by the Government of Madras in the matter of finding accommodation in the several Medical Schools of the Presidency for the large number of students seeking admission therein, the Mysore Government sanctioned, in April 1917, a scheme for training locally Sub-Assistant Surgeons required for service in the State and directed that the Mysore Medical School be started from the 1st July 1917 at Bangalore with a small batch of sixteen first year pupils, the Medical Officer in charge of the Victoria Hospital acting as Principal. The course extends over a period of four years. The management of the school is vested in the Principal aided by a School Council, composed of himself and four lecturers, the Senior Surgeon exercising general supervision and control.

Medical Education.

Until recently, a limited number of scholarships were awarded by the Government every year to candidates possessing the necessary qualifications to enable them to qualify for Medical Degrees in any of the Indian Universities and selected candidates are required to give an agreement of five years' service, if called upon, after obtaining the medical qualification. The Medical

Graduates thus have secured places in the Gazetted ranks of the Medical Department.

Although the School is intended primarily for the training of Sub-Assistant Surgeons required for the State Medical Department, private candidates are also admitted when accommodation is available. A class in the Government Medical School, Bangalore, for training candidates in the art of compounding was formed in 1919. The facilities to pupil compounders were increased by making the training available in all District Head-quarter Hospitals and at Robertsonpet by an order of Government No. L. 4705-6—Med. 94-21-2, dated 17th February 1922. The Medical School was raised in the year 1924-25 to the grade of a College, preparing candidates for Medical Degrees. The College is affiliated to the University of Mysore.

Foreign scholarships.

With a view to improve the efficiency of the Department, Government have always been encouraging officers and young men of promise by the offer of liberal scholarships to proceed to foreign countries and obtain higher professional qualifications or to specialize in particular branches of the profession.

Female Medical Aid.

The question of providing female medical aid has always been kept in view by the Government. Liberal scholarships and stipends are granted to female candidates desirous of qualifying themselves as Sub-Assistant Surgeons or for University Degrees. At the close of 1924-25, there were, in the State Medical service, 20 Lady Medical Officers and Subordinates, two in the grade of Surgeons, six in the grade of Assistant Surgeons, seven Apothecaries and five Sub-Assistant Surgeons. With a view to avoid certain inconveniences and to remove certain hardships resulting to male and female members of the service from a combined cadre,

Government in July 1920 ordered the formation of a separate cadre for lady doctors consisting of Surgeons on Rs. 400 rising to Rs. 600 by triennial increments of Rs. 50 and a sex allowance of Rs. 50, Assistant Surgeons, 1st grade, on Rs. 200—20—360 and a sex allowance of Rs. 30, Assistant Surgeons, 2nd Grade, on Rs. 120—10—200 and a sex allowance of Rs. 30, Apothecaries on Rs. 75—5—200 with a sex allowance of Rs. 30 and Sub-Assistant Surgeons on Rs. 50 rising to Rs. 90 by triennial increments, and two prize appointments on Rs. 100 with a sex allowance of Rs. 10.

The Senior Surgeon to Government was made *ex-officio* Sanitary Commissioner in 1887; the duties pertaining to the latter office consisted mainly of scrutiny and compilation of birth and death returns, supervision of vaccination and control of epidemics such as cholera. Subsequently, the nature and scope of the duties increased very considerably and the control of plague operations for which there was a special Plague Commissioner from 1898 to 1902 was made part of the Sanitary Commissioner's duties in 1902.

Organization
of Sanitary
Department.

In 1907, the Government sanctioned a scheme for the organization of a separate Sanitary Service in the State, having for its aim the gradual introduction of a definite uniform policy of sanitary administration, and action in Districts. For purposes of administration, the State was divided into three divisions, *i.e.*, Western, Eastern, and Southern. The department as thus constituted was to consist of the Senior Surgeon as *ex-officio* Sanitary Commissioner and a full-time Deputy to relieve him of all routine work and assist him in controlling and administering the department, three Divisional Sanitary Officers, three Health Officers, eight District Sanitary Officers, a number of Sanitary Inspectors, Assistant Sanitary Inspectors and Vaccinators. The department was not,

however, fully organized owing to financial considerations and paucity of specially trained hands. The Cities of Bangalore, Mysore and the Kolar Gold Fields were each provided with a qualified Medical Officer of Health, and a Divisional Sanitary Officer was appointed for the Western Circle comprising the Shimoga, Kadur and Chitaldrug Districts. The District Medical Officers continued to be *ex-officio* District Sanitary Officers in other Districts.

In 1909-10, certain changes in the constitution of the department were made. The posts of Divisional Sanitary Officers were abolished and the scale of pay of the District Sanitary Officers was raised so as to attract qualified men. The District Sanitary Officers were placed in subordination to the Deputy Commissioners in all but strictly technical matters as to which they were directly under the Sanitary Commissioner. Under the revised scheme, three District Sanitary Officers were appointed for the Mysore, Kolar and Kadur Districts, and one for Shimoga in 1911. In order to complete the cadre of District Sanitary Officers, four licentiates in Medicine and Surgery from among the 1st Class Sub-Assistant Surgeons were sent to Madras, two in 1914 and two in 1915, with scholarships to obtain the necessary qualifications in Sanitary Science.

Government, finding that sanitary reform had not progressed as expeditiously as desirable, sanctioned in 1917 a further reorganization of the Department. Under this arrangement, a full-time Sanitary Commissioner was placed at the head of the Department. The appointment of the Deputy Sanitary Commissioner was abolished. Except in the malnad districts of Shimoga, Kadur and Hassan and in the Mysore District, the District Medical Officer was made *ex-officio* District Sanitary Officer of the District.

Again, in 1919, Government, finding that the staff

was inadequate for the growing requirements of the Department, revised as follows the strength and scale of the staff of the Department :—

Sanctioned number	Designation	Pay
1	Sanitary Commissioner	1,000—0—0
4	Three Health Officers and one Officer in charge of Public Health Institute and Office Assistant to the Sanitary Commissioner.	400—30—700
7	Four District Sanitary Officers, one Assistant to the Public Health Institute and two officers (reserve.)	150—15—860
4	Sub-Assistant Surgeons (reserve)	45—10—5-65

During the year 1923-24, radical changes were, however, effected in the constitution and administration of the Sanitary Department. In pursuance of the retrenchments proposed by the Special Finance Committee, the appointment of full-time Sanitary Commissioner and the posts of District Health Officers and Deputy Inspectors of Vaccination were abolished. The Senior Surgeon was entrusted with the duties of Sanitary Commissioner and a new cadre of Chief Sanitary Inspectors was created to take the place of District Sanitary Officers and to work directly under the orders of the Presidents of District Boards.

A Central Sanitary Board for the discussion of Sanitary Projects throughout the State was formed in 1907 consisting of five *ex-officio* members :—

Central Sanitary Board.

(1) Sanitary Commissioner, (2) Revenue Commissioner, (3) Chief Engineer, (4) Deputy Sanitary Commissioner, and (5) Sanitary Engineer.

Two non-official members were proposed to be added to the Board at the discretion of Government.

Consequent on the reorganization of the Department in March 1917, the Board was reconstituted with seven members as follows:—

- (1) The Senior Surgeon in Mysore (President).
- (2) The Sanitary Commissioner (Vice-President).
- (3) The Assistant Director, Public Health Institute (Secretary).
- (4) The Executive Engineer, Sanitary Division.
- (5) The Executive Engineer, Water-Supply Division and two non-official members.

The Board was again reconstituted in 1920 with the Sanitary Commissioner as President and Superintending Engineer (Sanitary Circle), the Revenue Secretary to Government and two non-official members, preferably from the Legislative Council, as members. The primary function of the Board is to consider : —

- (1) schemes estimated to cost more than Rs. 5,000 ;
- (2) schemes which require financial assistance from Government ;

and to discuss sanitary matters of local interest.

The Board is a purely advisory body, but its constitution enables local officers to obtain the advice of Government experts, and members are able to obtain first-hand knowledge and information as to special local conditions and circumstances attending each scheme and, where necessary, personally to inspect the site.

Sanitary
Inspectors'
Class.

A class for training Sanitary Inspectors was opened in 1912. The course of training is of six months' duration and commences in July each year. The training is conducted by the Director, Public Health Institute, and his Assistant, the Health Officer, Bangalore, and the Sanitary Engineer and his Assistant. The course is modelled on that of the Sanitary Inspectors in Madras. The accommodation provided admits of the training of 20 candidates every year.

The ranks of the menials employed for the purpose of rubbish and night-soil conservancy are recruited locally and these establishments are under the control of the Taluk or Municipal Board which employs them.

Menial
establish-
ment.

II. MEDICAL RELIEF.

Prior to the Rendition.

After the assumption of the Government by the British, a dispensary was established in 1833 in a room in the Commissioner's office in the Fort of Bangalore and in 1834 one, in the Cantonment. In 1839, a hospital and a dispensary were commenced in the Petta on a small scale and proved so popular and useful that a suitable building, with accommodation for 50 patients, was erected in 1847. In 1849, the Fort Dispensary was also provided with a proper building. In 1850, a hospital was opened at Shimoga. In 1852, a hospital for 70 in-patients was established in the Cantonment Bazaar, and the Petta Hospital was enlarged. A further addition to the latter was made in 1856, and, in that year, the Yelwal Dispensary, established in connection with the Residency, was transferred to Hassan. In 1866, the Petta Hospital was further enlarged, but, meanwhile, the Bowring Civil Hospital was under erection in Cantonment, on the plan of Lariboisiere in Paris, which admits of the segregation of the several castes of people and of different classes of disease. It was occupied in 1868, and in 1872 the Petta Hospital was converted into a Dispensary, in-patients being transferred to the Bowring Hospital.

Hospitals and
Dispensaries.

In 1881, there were only 24 hospitals and dispensaries in the State, of which three were General Hospitals, five Dispensaries with in-patient wards and 12 Dispensaries for out-patients only, two Maternities and two Asylums, one for lunatics and the other for lepers. The following

After the
Rendition.

table shows the growth in the number of medical institutions of the various classes from 1881 to 1918:—

	1881	1891	1901	1911	1918	1923
State public— General and Special Hospitals and Dispensaries.	8	9	15	15	26	28
State non-public— Such as Jail, Military and Public Works Department.	...	6	6	8	8	9
Local Funds and Municipal Dispensaries.	16	81	113	116	128	146
Private aided	3	4	7
Private non-aided	2	2	3
Railway Dispensaries	5	10	7
Total ...	24	90	134	149	178	200

The Victoria
Hospital,
Bangalore.

On the Bowring Civil Hospital being made over to the administration of the Civil and Military Station, Bangalore, in 1884, the St. Martha's Hospital, opened by the Roman Catholic Mission in 1886, supplied the want of a hospital for the Bangalore City until 1893, when Government connection with it ceased. A separate Government Hospital was opened in 1893 and was temporarily located in the old District Lock-up buildings until 1900, when it was transferred to the new building constructed for the purpose. The hospital is named in commemoration of the Diamond Jubilee of Her Majesty the late Empress Victoria, and is situated within easy access of the populous parts of the City. The foundation stone was laid on 22nd June 1897 by Her Highness the Maharani-Regent of Mysore, and the Hospital, which including the staff quarters and other out-houses has cost 7½ lakhs of rupees, was opened on the 8th December 1900 by Lord Curzon, then Viceroy and Governor-General of India. There is provision for 140 beds in the institution which is fitted up with the latest appliances, including X-Ray apparatus and deserves to be ranked amongst the best hospitals in India. A department of Dental Surgery was also opened in connection with it in December 1918.

The Krishnarajendra Hospital at Mysore has for its habitation a stately building constructed recently at an estimated cost of Rs. 3,65,000. There is accommodation for about 100 in-patients and the hospital is equipped with up-to-date appliances including X-Ray apparatus.

The Krishna-
rajendra
Hospital at
Mysore.

There are hospitals at the head-quarters of the remaining six districts and at Robertsonpet which are being gradually improved according to their requirements.

District
Hospitals.

Every taluk contains at least one dispensary at its head-quarter. There are 20 taluks containing two dispensaries each, seven containing three dispensaries each, the taluks of Manjarabad and Chikmagalur contain four dispensaries each, and the taluks of Tarikere and Tirthahalli contain five dispensaries each.

Local Fund
Dispensaries.

Prior to the Rendition and even for a few years after it, women in labour had to depend, almost entirely, on the help of crude and untrained barber women or *dayis*, there being no qualified midwives in the State. A few selected women were given stipends and sent to Madras for training and, on their return, were employed as midwives. By the year 1891, the Department had 19 trained midwives in service. In the year 1892, classes for training midwives were opened in the Maternity Hospitals at Bangalore and Mysore with a view to secure qualified midwives in numbers sufficient to meet the increasing demand. Training in scientific midwifery is also now given in the Robertsonpet Maternity and in the Shimoga Female Dispensary. In 1901, the number of trained midwives in service was 91 which increased to 114 in 1911 and stood at 135 at the close of 1918. The scale of pay of midwives was revised as detailed below:—

Midwives.

	Rs.		Rs.
4th class 1 to 5 years' service	15	2nd class 11 to 15 years' service	21
3rd „ 6 to 10 „	18	1st „ 15 „	25

**The
Maternity
and Hospital
for women.**

The Maternity and Hospital for women and children, Bangalore, and the Vani Vilas Hospital, Mysore, were opened in 1880. The former, though transferred to the management of the Bangalore Town Municipality in 1883, was supervised by the Senior Surgeon to the Mysore Government, and the latter, by the Civil Surgeon at Mysore. In the former, only labour cases were treated as in-patients till the close of the year 1884, but since then, other diseases also are treated. The first contains accommodation for 24 and the second for 30 in-patients. The maternity and Hospital at Robertsonpet, Kolar Gold Fields, was opened on the 7th October 1914 and contains accommodation for 18 in-patients.

**Female
Dispensaries.**

The District Head-quarters of Kolar, Tumkur, Hassan, Shimoga, Kadur and Chitaldrug and the six moffusil towns of Sagar, Chikballapur, Tirthahalli, Davangere, Kallurkatte and Chintamani contain, each, a Female Dispensary. Government, in 1918, directed as a first step, the conversion of the female dispensaries at Tumkur, Shimoga and Chikmagalur into small maternities, and local proposals to establish institutions for the training of women in scientific midwifery are under consideration.

**Itinerating
Dispensaries.**

To provide increased facilities in respect of medical aid for people living in specially unhealthy tracts in the *malnad* parts of the State, the Government sanctioned as a temporary measure, in the year 1915, the establishment of itinerating dispensaries. This scheme was given effect to during the year 1916. The medical subordinates in charge are required to travel from village to village in their respective areas, and render medical aid to the villagers. They are also expected to educate the masses in matters of personal and domestic hygiene and sanitation.

In 1903-04, there were two Hindu Vaidyasālas and a Unani Dispensary in the City of Mysore. During the year 1922-23, there were in the State 80 Hindu Vaidyasālas and Unani Dispensaries at work. These indigenous institutions seem to be as much resorted to as the regular medical institutions.

Hindu
Vaidyasālas
and
Dispensaries.

An Ayurvedic College was established at Mysore during 1908-09 in place of the Vaidya class in the Maharaja's Sanskrit College. This new college commenced work from 1st January 1909 with 10 scholarship holders. The course of study extends over a period of four years and includes instruction and practical training in physiology, anatomy, hygiene, midwifery and materia medica. Special provision is also made for scholarships to students of this college at the rate of Rs. 8 for the first year, Rs. 10 for the second year and Rs. 12 for the remaining two years. Instruction in Sanskrit works on medicine is imparted by a Head Pandit and an Assistant Pandit and the practical training is given at the indigenous Hospital at Mysore, attached to the College. One of the Assistant Surgeons located in the Mysore City was being deputed to give instruction in physiology, anatomy and other subjects of Western Medical Science, till 1917, when arrangements were made to afford facilities in the medical school opened at Bangalore to such of the successful pupils of the Ayurvedic College as are desirous of taking a special course of training in Western Medicine.

The
Ayurvedic
College,
Mysore.

As a first step towards the improvement of the Ayurvedic and Unani systems, Government, in 1918, sanctioned the grant of four scholarships, two of Rs. 75 each and two of Rs. 50 each per mensem. Of the former, one was directed to be given to a graduate in Western Medicine with adequate knowledge of Sanskrit to study Ayurveda in Calcutta for a period of three years and the other to a graduate in Western Medicine with adequate

knowledge of Persian and Arabic to study the Unani System in the Tibbi College at Delhi for a period of five years; of the latter, one to an Ayurvedic Pandit and the other to a Unani Hakim, to study for the L. M. & S. or M.B., B.S. Degree of the Bombay or the Madras University.

The work of this institution is superintended by a Committee consisting of the Councillor in charge of the Muzrai Department, as President, the Muzrai Superintendent as Secretary, and four members, one of whom will ordinarily be the Civil Surgeon of the District and the others appointed by Government for a term of two years.

Hospitals for infectious diseases.

There are three hospitals in the State for the treatment of infectious diseases, one for each of the Bangalore and Mysore Cities and the Kolar Gold Fields.

Further improvements under consideration.

In February 1919, the Government sanctioned the formation of a Committee, with the Senior Surgeon as President, consisting of three official and three non-official members to consider the following points:—

(1) Adequacy of the present organisation for medical relief in the State.

(2) Necessity for increasing the number of hospitals and dispensaries in the outlying parts of the State.

(3) Feasibility of extending medical aid through Ayurvedic and Unani institutions.

(4) Improving female medical relief throughout the State.

(5) A programme for the next five years and the advisability of starting a medical faculty and reorganising the Medical School.

(6) Question of adjusting the financial responsibility of Government, Municipal Councils and District Boards in regard to Medical institutions.

(7) Immediate requirements of the Department—additional medical staff needed in all grades and how to recruit them.

The Committee, after duly considering the several points referred to them, submitted a report containing the following recommendations:—

(a) Opening up of 110 new dispensaries within the next five years to be manned chiefly by Sub-Assistant Surgeons.

(b) Posting of Sub-Assistant Surgeons in addition to Assistant Surgeons to certain important dispensaries.

(c) Development of District Hospitals so as to bring them to an up-to-date standard.

(d) Construction of new and up-to-date buildings for the Lunatic Asylum.

(e) Extension of Medical relief through Unani and Ayurvedic dispensaries if properly qualified Vaidyas can be turned out from the Ayurvedic College, Mysore.

(f) Providing each Taluk Head-quarter with a female dispensary in charge of a Lady Assistant Surgeon and two midwives.

(g) Opening of a maternity at each District Head-quarter with facilities for training *dayis* in midwifery.

(h) Construction of a building for the maternity hospital at Bangalore and provision therein of facilities for training *dayis* in midwifery.

(i) Starting a medical faculty in Bangalore in connection with the Mysore University and establishing a Medical College at an initial and recurring cost of Rs. 8,25,000 and Rs. 60,100, respectively.

(j) Fixing a programme of expenditure for the next five years as follows :—

	Rs.
First year	9,27,012
Second year	9,55,024
Third year	10,13,036
Fourth year	10,71,048
Fifth year	11,34,064

(k) Continuing the maintenance of District Head-quarter Hospitals from State Funds.

(l) Apportionment in equal shares of the maintenance cost of the dispensaries in rural areas, between the State and the District Funds, the initial cost being met from State Funds.

(m) Raising the minimum pay of Sub-Assistant Surgeons to Rs. 50.

(n) Improvement of the pay and prospects of compounders (*vide* G. O. No. G. 26855-65 Med. 70-18-21, dated 31st May 1920).

Government generally approved of the above recommendations of the Committee and promised that the same would be given effect to as funds become available. The action taken by Government in pursuance of the recommendations of the Committee is detailed below:—

(1) Thirty-four dispensaries have in all been opened during the five years from 1920 to 1925.

(2) The question of improving the District hospital building at Shimoga has been under active consideration and a Lady Assistant Surgeon with Superior European qualifications has been posted for duty to this institution.

The District Hospital buildings at Hassan and Chikmagalur have been improved to some extent and in the case of Hassan certain further improvements are under consideration.

The construction of a new and up-to-date building for the Lunatic Asylum has been taken up for consideration.

With a view to extend medical relief through Unani and Ayurvedic Dispensaries, special scholarships for receiving training in Unani system of medicine in the Tibbi College, Delhi, have been awarded both for male and lady candidates.

A combined Ayurvedic and Unani Dispensary has been established at Shimoga under the control of the Medical Department. The question of reorganizing the Ayurvedic College at Mysore is also under consideration.

In regard to the provision of a Female Dispensary for each Taluk Head-quarter, such Dispensaries have already been opened at Chintamani and Davangere. The question of opening smaller ones at Saklespur, Mudgere, Chennapatna and Hole-Narsipur is now under consideration of Government. Besides this, four Lady Assistant Surgeons

have been sanctioned for work in the Malnad Districts of Hassan, Kadur and Shimoga.

In pursuance of the proposal for opening a maternity at each District Head-quarter, arrangements have been made for treating maternity cases in the District Hospitals at Shimoga, Tumkur and Kolar Gold Fields, in addition to Bangalore and Mysore. The question of providing maternity wards in connection with the other District Hospitals is also under consideration.

Numerous additions and improvements have been effected to the existing building wherein the maternity hospital at Bangalore has now been located. A medical college has been opened as has already been stated. Suitable arrangements have been made for meeting the cost of maintenance of District Head-quarter Hospitals and the dispensaries in rural areas and the pay of the Sub-Assistant Surgeons and compounders has been improved as recommended by the Committee.

III. SPECIAL HOSPITALS.

In addition to the—

Special
Hospitals at
Bangalore.

(1) Maternity and Hospital for women and children, Bangalore ;

(2) The Vani Vilas Hospital for women, Mysore ; and

(3) The Maternity and Hospital at Robertsonpet, Kolar Gold Fields, mentioned above,

There are also the following Special Hospitals at Bangalore :—

(1) The Minto Ophthalmic Hospital,

(2) The Lunatic Asylum,

(3) The Leper Asylum, and

(4) The Epidemic Diseases Hospital.

An Eye Infirmary was opened in 1896 in the City as an experimental measure for the treatment of eye cases, and, having proved a success, was made permanent in 1897, when an in-patient department was opened. In 1910, the Government resolved to construct a special

The Minto
Ophthalmic
Hospital,
Bangalore.

building to locate the Eye Infirmary. The foundation stone was laid by His Highness the Maharaja on the 17th December 1910, in commemoration of the visit of His Excellency the Rt. Hon'ble the Earl of Minto to Mysore and the Minto Ophthalmic Hospital was opened by His Highness the Maharaja on the 31st January 1913. The building has cost Rs. 2,82,000 and is fitted up with the latest appliances. Though originally intended to provide accommodation for 62 beds, its growing popularity and the demand from the public have necessitated the number being increased to 92 by the appropriation of all available rooms for the purpose.

The Lunatic
Asylum,
Bangalore.

This was opened near the Petta Hospital in 1850, the inmates being removed from a smaller place of custody which had existed two years previously in the Cantonment, and a few years after, the old Petta Jail was added to the accommodation. In 1913, the construction of additional cells for European women and of quarters for the Matron was commenced. These buildings were completed during 1916-17. They have not only relieved congestion in the female ward, but have also provided separate accommodation for high caste Hindu women. Lunatics of the Civil and Military Station, Bangalore, are admitted into this Asylum and the cost of their maintenance and custody is recovered from the Station authorities and credited to the State Funds. The inmates of the Asylum are, according to their aptitudes and temperaments, provided with such work as grinding ragi, cleaning rice, spinning, cooking, sweeping and gardening, weaving *cumbli*s and cloth, cleaning and beating out wool, etc. The criminal lunatics are dressed differently from other lunatics, to admit of easy recognition; but in other respects they are treated in the same way. Every attempt is made to keep the inmates cheerful and happy by periodical treats and gramophone

entertainments, distribution of sweets and flowers on festival days, and daily distribution of *pan supari*, snuff and tobacco to those accustomed to their use.

The reception and detention of lunatics in the Asylum were regulated till 1916, by rules passed by the Government of India in the Foreign Department No. 75 J. dated 25th April 1872 and published in Chief Commissioner's Notification No. 141 dated 31st July 1874. The Mysore Lunacy Regulation No. I of 1916 was passed in February 1916. It provides :—

The Mysore
Lunacy
Regulation.

- (1) for the reception, care and treatment of lunatics,
- (2) for holding inquisitions by proper courts for the purpose of ascertaining whether a lunatic possessing property is of unsound mind and incapable of managing himself and his affairs,
- (3) for the application of a lunatic's property for expenses incurred on his behalf, and
- (4) for penalty for improper reception or detention of lunatics.

The Asylum was opened in the Petta in 1845; the building, however, was small and badly situated; a large one was therefore built in a better spot in 1857. In October 1904, sanction was accorded to the construction of two wards in the Magadi Road Epidemic Diseases Hospital, Bangalore, and the inmates of the Asylum were removed to the new building during 1907-08. Residence in the Asylum is optional, so that the poor come and go as long as they can move about without great discomfort. As regards treatment, the most that can be said is that life is made as tolerable for them as possible, special or distressing symptoms are treated as best as possible, but in no case can it be said that anything approaching a cure has been effected, even though the progress of the disease has been slowed in many or temporarily arrested in some and the general health of nearly all improved, by

The Leper
Asylum,
Bangalore.

attention to personal and general hygiene, good food and housing, regular hours and the interdiction of irregular or vicious habits and practices. The lepers are usually treated in the Asylum with chalmogra oil internally and margosa oil externally. Lepers of the Civil and Military Station, Bangalore, are also admitted and the cost of maintenance is recovered from the Station authorities.

The Epidemic
Diseases
Hospital,
Bangalore.

This hospital was opened on 1st July 1891. It is situated at a safe distance from the Railway Station at the western end and is available for accommodation and treatment of cases of infectious or communicable diseases occurring among the residents of the City or amongst pilgrims or others arriving by train. The hospital was originally termed "Chattram Hospital" and was afterwards known as "Hospital for Infectious Diseases" and is now known as the "Epidemic Diseases Hospital."

IV. EPIDEMIC DISEASES.

Plague
Administra-
tion: Plague,
General.

Plague first appeared in Bangalore in 1898, after the outbreak at Bombay and, during the last 20 years, has claimed 205,422 victims. During the earlier years of the epidemic, the preventive measures were mostly such as aimed at the destruction of the pathogenic-micro-organism, the plague bacillus, which was supposed to be the independent causative agent in the transmission of the disease. Large sums of money were spent on arrangements that involved the employment of costly cordon staffs on railway inspections, on quarantine and, lastly, on disinfection by chemicals. Evacuation of infected houses and construction of health camps were also resorted to from the very commencement. It is as a part of the remedial measures undertaken by Government to combat the plague epidemic that large extensions at considerable cost to Government were opened in Bangalore and Mysore, soon after the outbreak of plague

to avoid overcrowding and to give more wholesome habitations to the people. With the advance of knowledge on the subject of the aetiology of plague and the recognition of the fact that the rat-flea is the connecting link in the chain of infection from the rat to man, these costly measures have been abandoned in favour of—

- (1) prompt evacuation,
- (2) inoculation with Haffkine prophylactic serum, and
- (3) disinfection by dry heat combined with fumigation by burning neem leaves.

Evacuation is the most popular preventive measure against plague. The usual facilities for evacuation are provided and arrangements are made for the supply of shed materials, free to the poor and at cost price to others, in places where hutting materials are not easily procurable. Government officials willing to camp out are given an advance of a month's pay not exceeding Rs. 30, repayable in three monthly instalments. Suitable sites are selected for putting up sheds, and necessary arrangements are made for the conservancy, lighting and general sanitation of the health camps. The public are allowed to deposit their valuables in public treasuries during the period of evacuation; police protection is afforded to them during their residence in camps.

Preventive
Measures :
Evacuation.

The District Medical and Sanitary Officers are responsible for inoculation in their respective districts and in special cases whole-time officers are deputed for inoculation duty. Rewards are also paid at the rate of 4 annas for each adult and 2 annas for each child inoculated from among the labouring classes. On the whole, inoculation seems to be in a fair way to become popular and to be, next to evacuation, the only measure known at present by which people can escape the ravages of plague.

Inoculation.

Disinfection. In rural areas, disinfection, the un-roofing of thatched houses and their exposure to sun and air, and lime-washing of houses are the usual methods adopted. Chemical disinfection is mostly confined to the larger towns and to villages on the British Frontier.

**Destruction
of rats.**

The system of destroying rats was being encouraged by the payment of rewards till the year 1910-11. The system has since been discontinued as the efforts towards extirpating rats by this means proved unavailing and the result achieved was not in any way proportionate to the expenditure incurred. The importance of rat destruction as a plague preventive measure has, however, been impressed on the public and owners of houses have been exhorted to continue the campaign against rats and keep their houses free from these dangerous rodents.

As to future policy in regard to plague administration, it is proposed to devote attention to the destruction of rats in the off-season and making necessary arrangements so that each local area may have its own organization and equipment to be able to deal at a moment's notice with outbreaks of plague epidemic.

**Special
Sanitary
Measures.**

Special measures for the sanitary improvement of large towns are being carried out every year for the purpose, not only of checking the outbreak of plague, but of arresting its spread into villages.

**Administra-
tion.**

Since the formation of the Public Health Department, the carrying out of measures to combat plague has become part of the work of the department. In the cities of Bangalore and Mysore, plague operations are in charge of the Presidents of the respective Municipalities, assisted by the Health Officers. In the several districts, the Deputy Commissioners, assisted by the respective

District Medical and Sanitary Officers, direct plague operations. Temporary establishments are also entertained, whenever there is need.

On the 11th February 1897, the Epidemic Diseases Regulation No. II of 1897 was passed, empowering Government to take such measures, and prescribe such temporary Regulations, as may be necessary, to deal with plague.

Epidemic
Diseases
Regulation.

The following statement shows the quinquennial averages commencing from 1898-99 with ratio of plague mortality per mille of population and the percentages of deaths to attacks:—

Mortality
from Plague.

Year	Average		Ratio per mille of population	Percentage of deaths to attacks
	Attacks	Deaths		
1898-99 to 1902-03 ...	19,490	14,700	2.70	75.4
1903-04 to 1907-08 ...	15,902	11,589	2.13	72.8
1908-09 to 1912-13 ...	9,669	6,979	1.22	72.1
1913-14 to 1917-18 ...	9,555	6,706	1.17	69.7
1917-18 to 1922-23 ...	10,157	1,706	1.41	16.7

It will be seen that from 1898 to 1918 each succeeding quinquennium recorded a steady decline in the plague mortality so that the initial virulence of incidence was not increased or even maintained. During the next quinquennium, there was, however, a slight rise in the mortality and also in the percentage of deaths to attacks.

The history of cholera in the several districts bears evidence to the fact that fairs and pilgrim centres in British Territory are the starting points of cholera outbreaks in the State. Anti-cholera measures consist of hankinisation of infected wells, provision of temporary shallow wells and affording medical relief.

Cholera.

Small-pox.

Small-pox accounted for 76,319 deaths from 1898 to 1914, the average annual mortality from this cause thus being 5,623. The number of deaths for the seven years from 1917 to 1923 was 31,290 working out to an average of 4,470 per year. The concentration of vaccination work in the affected parts is the only preventive measure adopted.

V. VITAL STATISTICS.

Agency for
the
registration
of Vital
Statistics.

There is no special agency for registration other than the patels. The monthly returns sent in by the patels (village head-men) are collected in the Taluk Office and transmitted to the District Office where the figures are compiled and a montly return sent to the Sanitary Commissioner's Office. In the Cities of Bangalore and Mysore, however, the Medical Officers in charge of Municipal Dispensaries are *ex-officio* Registrars of births and deaths for their Divisions. The Registration of births and deaths is compulsory in these two Cities under the provisions contained in the Municipal Regulation.

Revised
Rules.

With a view to secure better registration of vital occurrences, revised rules were issued during 1915-1916, under which particular attention was paid among other things to—

(1) the actual verification of entries found in the village registers by personal enquiry on the spot by inspecting officers,

(2) professional scrutiny of the figures before tabulation in the Taluk and District Offices, and

(3) the systematic periodical review of the recorded statistics by local bodies.

The Mysore
Registration
of Births and
Deaths
Regulation.

Regulation No. III of 1916 was passed to improve the system of collection, compilation and publication of vital statistics in the State. It is based on the Madras Act III

of 1899. As Section 48 of the Mysore Municipal Regulation, 1906, provides for framing bye-laws to compel registration of births and deaths in Municipal areas, Municipalities constituted under the Mysore Municipal Regulation are excluded from the operation of this measure. Power is reserved in the Regulation to Government to extend the provisions thereof to specified villages or local areas from time to time.

VI. SANITATION.

The outstanding features in recent developments in urban sanitation consist in an increased attention to water supplies and in the laying out of well-planned extensions.

Urban
Sanitation.

The towns of Bangalore, Mysore, Kolar Gold Fields, Harihar, Davangere and Nanjangud are furnished with pipe water derived from public water works (Jewell Filters). As regards other towns, great difficulties present themselves in the discovery of sources of water supply sufficient in quantity for the population, and of a potable quality. Shallow and deep wells alike, in many localities, yield only brackish water, and, when the water is unobjectionable in quality, the quantity is too limited for public service. Several of the deep wells sunk at much expense have wholly failed. The results of the investigations carried out by Dr. F. Smeeth, State Geologist in Mysore, as to the nature of the deeper-lying strata in most districts and their water bearing capacity, have been published in his book "Note on the underground water-supply in Mysore," to which those interested in the subject might advantageously refer.

Supply of
drinking
water.

Town planning, an important branch of sanitary effort, is beginning to claim a large share of attention at the hands of the local authorities than heretofore, and is

Town
Planning.

usually being considered as part and parcel of schemes for improving town drainage, water supply and conservancy.

Drainage.

Surface drainage is in almost all towns effected in open drains which receive both rain water and domestic waste. These channels invariably follow the lines of those in use for the removal of rain water, *viz.*, the roadside drains. In most of the larger towns, these channels have been converted into masonry drains, often faulty in design and in construction, and since they pass directly in front of the dwellings, the system is a continuous source of nuisance and of ill-health. A scheme for a complete and efficient system of underground sewage has been taken up for the Mysore City and is being actively pushed on. A similar scheme for Bangalore (City proper) has also been formulated.

Night-soil
conservancy.

Except in Bangalore and Mysore Cities, the sanitary organization has not advanced so far as the introduction of a public service for night-soil removal and in all such places the cess-pit is in general use.

Municipal
bye-laws.

Many Municipalities in the State have recently framed or revised bye-laws under the Municipal Regulation for the control of erection of buildings, the regulation of offensive or dangerous trades, for the proper conduct of hotels or other eating houses, the manufacture of aerated water and sale of food-stuffs and of milk.

Sanitation in
rural areas.

Sanitation in village tracts is generally in a backward state. The rules under the Village Sanitation Regulation make the headman of each village or village tract responsible for maintaining his charge in a reasonable state of cleanliness and for seeing that other simple sanitary rules are attended to.

Water supply is provided mainly from tanks, streams, or nalas and in many cases from surface wells. Water-supply.

In February 1914, a scheme for the improvement of villages in the State was sanctioned with the primary object of making a beginning to stimulate economic and other activities in rural areas, to promote subsidiary occupations and increase the production and the earning power of the people. The collection of statistics, extension of education and co-operation, improvement of village sanitation, arrangements for lectures and lessons conducive to the mental and moral well-being of the people and furtherance of objects calculated to add to the comfort of the people and increase their earning power form the main functions of the Village Improvement Committees. Village Improvement Scheme.

An annual grant of Rs. 2 lakhs was at first made for purposes of Grant-in-aid to villages having no funds at their disposal. The grant-in-aid to each such village was equal to the amount of contributions raised by the villagers. In addition to this, a special grant of one lakh of rupees annually was made for providing properly protected sources of water-supply in villages, as a measure for the prevention of cholera epidemic. In G. O. No. 4885—R. M. 6-23-11, dated 1st April 1924, the Village Improvement grant was fixed at half of villagers' contribution. Grant-in-aid for Village Improvement.

In order to assimilate useful information to the public, booklets containing simple rules on village prosperity and sanitation were issued to the Village Improvement Committees constituted under the scheme. Every villager was induced to give half a day in a week for work connected with the improvement of the village, a portion of which was devoted to the cleaning and enclosing of Village Improvement Work.

all vacant sites and filling up or keeping well-drained all pits and hollows in or within 20 yards of the village site. The actual work turned out by the Village Committees consists of the construction of roads, sinking of drinking water wells, construction of school buildings and musafirkhanas, holding of conferences, planting trees, subscribing for newspapers, holding weekly meetings for instruction and recreation.

Village
Sanitation
Regulation.

On the 8th February 1898, the Mysore Village Sanitary Regulation (No. I of 1898) was passed empowering Government to make rules to regulate the conservancy of villages, to provide for the protection and periodical examination of wells and water supply, to define and prohibit public nuisance in villages and to make breaches of rules penal. Up to end of 1923, the Regulation was introduced into 13,231 villages in the State.

Malnad
Improvement
Scheme.

As a result of the preliminary investigations carried out in connection with the decline of population in the Malnad, Government sanctioned, in 1914, a grant of Rs. 3 lakhs to be spread over three years, for measures necessary for the removal of the most potent evils that have hitherto been contributing towards the increase of diseases and deaths in the Malnad tracts of the State.

Malnad
Improvement
Committees.

During 1914-15, a Committee for each of the three districts of Shimoga, Kadur and Hassan was constituted, composing of nine members of whom three were non-officials, with the Deputy Commissioner of the District as Chairman, for giving practical effect to improvements most obviously needed and for developing other schemes of permanent utility to the tract. The Committees are assisted by two executive officers of the rank of Assistant

Commissioners, one for the Shimoga and the other for Kadur and Hassan Districts.

The lines of work of the Sanitary Department under the Malnad Improvement Committees are—

Work of the
Sanitary
Department
with the Com-
mittees.

- (1) inspection of villages with a view to their improvement under the Malnad Improvement scheme,
- (2) sanitary survey of tracts,
- (3) identification of mosquitoes and examination of stagnant waters for anapheline larvæ,
- (4) supervision of vaccinations,
- (5) examination of births and deaths registers and selection of typical groups of villages for gathering accurate data of the state of public health in them,
- (6) ascertaining the splenic index, and
- (7) spreading sound ideas among the people about sanitation by means of lectures, informal talk and publication of leaflets.

It was felt in 1919 that the plan of work and the organisation connected with the improvement of the Malnad were in need of revision in the light of the experience gained and results achieved in previous years. The Central Committee was responsible for schemes both in the preparation and execution of which the co-operation of several Heads of Departments was essential—sanitation and medical relief beginning prominently in the programme. Government accordingly reconstituted the Central Committee with a Member of Government as President, the Heads of Departments concerned, the Deputy Commissioners of the three Malnad Districts and six non-official representatives as Members, with one of the Assistant Secretaries to Government as Secretary to the Committee. The District Committees were likewise reformed and the future lines of action by the Improvement Committees were also laid down by Government. The annual conference of the Malnad Improvement Committees was also discontinued by

Government as the object of the conference could equally well be gained by utilising the present annual District conferences for discussion of questions relating to Malnad improvement. In 1921, the Malnad Improvement Committees were abolished, the work relating to Malnad Improvement being transferred to the Medical and Sanitary Departments and the local bodies concerned.

Medical
Inspection of
Schools and
Education in
Hygiene.

In 1909, the Inspector-General of Education, in consultation with the Sanitary Commissioner, published departmental instructions, defining the responsibility of head-masters for regularising the medical inspection of schools in places where medical officers and subordinates are stationed. A large number of reports on school sanitation with reference to structural improvements is also sent up by the District Sanitary officers for action by the Education Department. In 1914, a scheme was formulated for a general and more effective medical inspection of pupils and for the instruction of school masters in the principles of Hygiene. The teaching of elementary hygiene in schools is compulsory up to the Lower Secondary standard. In 1916, a detailed scheme was sanctioned for the medical inspection of pupils at District Head-quarters. This scheme did not however actually come into force for various reasons. On further consideration, Government directed in 1921 that, in view of the cost involved and the large organisation that would be needed for the medical inspection of all schools, the scheme may first be introduced in the Government A.-V. and High Schools at District Head-quarters. Sanction was accorded to engaging the services of a retired medical officer or a qualified private practitioner for Bangalore and Mysore and at other District Head-quarters for the conduct of work by a local medical officer on payment of a fee of a rupee per pupil for two half-yearly examinations.

VII. PUBLIC HEALTH INSTITUTE AND CHEMICAL LABORATORY.

The Public Health Institute was established in November 1911, the old Chemical Laboratory and Bacteriological Institute having been merged into it. All the Chemical, Bacteriological, Toxicological and Public health work in the State is done in the Institute. Private analyses are undertaken on payment of fees. The School of Hygiene, which forms part of the Health Institute, trains Sanitary Inspectors.

Public Health
Institute.

To make provision for regulating the possession and sale of all poisons in certain local areas and importation, possession and sale of white arsenic throughout the State, Regulation No. V of 1910 was passed on 2nd December 1910.

The Mysore
Poisons
Regulation.

VIII. VACCINATION.

Private inoculators are stated to have been formerly pretty numerous, but, by 1855, they had been completely deprived of their occupation by the preference given to Government vaccinators. These were 54 in number and were transferred from taluk to taluk, whenever necessary. There were three grades, on the respective pay of Rs. 8, 10 and 12 a month. Each vaccinator was expected to vaccinate 10 persons for each rupee of his pay, or suffer a proportional fine. A small money reward was given at the end of the year to the most active vaccinator of each Division.

Prior to the
Reindition.

Under this system, the number of operations increased with suspicious rapidity. The total of 62,257 in 1855-56 rose to 91,404 in 1857-58, and was a little below a lakh in 1862-63. It became notorious that, with the connivance of the village officials, the verification lists sent in by the vaccinators were frequently fictitious. The

project was then formed, in 1865-66, of making them work in a more systematic manner through their ranges, proceeding from village to village in regular succession and, as by this mode of proceeding, some difficulty might be found in making up the required complement, the stipulation as to the number of operations to be performed monthly was withdrawn. The total which had fallen in that year to 88,054 went down in 1866-67 to 73,793. Since that time, it steadily rose until, in 1875-76, it again touched a lakh, and, with some variations in the famine years, remained at near that figure. In 1872-73, a system of inspection by the apothecaries attached to the camps of Deputy Commissioners was introduced as a check which appears to have worked well.

After the
Rendition.

There were 84 Taluk vaccinators in 1880-81, and four in the Bangalore Municipality. The medical subordinates in hospitals and dispensaries also vaccinated. During the year 1886-87, four Deputy Inspectors of vaccination were appointed as an experimental measure and were posted to the districts of Bangalore, Tumkur, Mysore and Shimoga and, during 1887-88, four more were appointed which completed the establishment in this respect, *viz.*, one to each District. On account of the comparatively limited check which the Medical Department exercised over the work of the vaccinators and the framing of their returns, the progress was not satisfactory. The working of the department was therefore handed over to the Deputy Commissioners at the commencement of the official year 1889-90 and the Medical Department afforded them every aid they could.

In 1907, when the Health scheme was sanctioned, Government, with a view to ensure efficient supervision in the districts, placed the Deputy Inspectors and vaccinators entirely subordinate to the District Medical and Sanitary Officers. The strength of the vaccination

establishment as it stood in 1923-24 consisted of 8 Deputy Inspectors and 161 vaccinators. In addition to these, there is a reserve vaccinator for each district for emergent work wherever necessary and to relieve vaccinators proceeding on leave.

The vaccination work is carried on by vaccinators in accordance with what is called the "Kurnool System." According to this system, a programme is prepared beforehand by the Deputy Inspector of vaccination indicating the villages in which the vaccinator has to carry on the work during the following month. *Takids* or notices of the arrival of vaccinator are sent to patels who are expected to have all the unprotected children in their villages ready for vaccination on the date on which the vaccinator is expected to visit the village. After the visit of the vaccinator, the patel sends a report on the progress of the work to the Deputy Inspector of vaccination, through the Amildar; at the same time, the vaccinator also sends in his report direct to the Deputy Inspector. At the close of the month, the vaccinator compiles a monthly return and submits it to the Deputy Inspector.

Kurnool
System.

In places where a medical officer or subordinate is stationed, the vaccination work in the area is entrusted to him. He maintains a "Vaccination State" register, that is to say, a register showing the number of "unprotected" children he has to vaccinate, and, for this purpose, is regularly furnished with a monthly statement of births in the area. In addition to vaccinating at the Dispensary, he is required to set apart one morning every week to go round the town in search of cases and vaccinate children in their houses. In Bangalore and Mysore Cities, the Registrars of Births and Deaths perform vaccination at the Dispensary. There are also special

Vaccination
Work by
Medical
Officers.

male and female vaccinators employed by the Municipalities to vaccinate children in their houses.

Survey of
Unprotected
Children.

Endeavours are being made to have preliminary survey of "unprotected" children made out, to constitute a basis for an efficient programme of vaccination work. Every inspecting officer of the Department is instructed to make it part of his business, to ascertain, by personal enquiry, the total number of "unprotected" children in the place he inspects. In the Bangalore and Mysore Cities and on the Kolar Gold Fields, a census was taken during 1914-15. In Bangalore, a detailed register is maintained in each Division in which all unprotected subjects between 6 months and 12 years of age are shown. As regards other Municipal areas, the Municipal Officer stationed in the municipality maintains a register of "unprotected" children and is required to certify every month that the register is kept up-to-date.

Compulsory
Vaccination
Regulation.

To make provision for compulsory vaccination in the State, the Vaccination Regulation (No. I of 1906) was passed on the 16th March 1906. Power is reserved in the Regulation to Government to declare vaccination compulsory in any local area.

IX. THE GOVERNMENT VACCINE INSTITUTE.

Arm to arm
method.

Before the establishment of the Vaccine Institute, the arm to arm method was practised. The vaccinators had to get their supplies of lymph as best they could.

Manufacture
of lanoline
paste in the
Vaccine
Institute.

Vaccination from the calf was introduced in 1884-85, but it was found difficult to keep up the stock. Since 1892, there has been a Vaccine Institute at Bangalore, where lanoline paste is manufactured direct from calf lymph according to Surgeon-Major King's method. The lymph prepared is uniformly of excellent quality.

Lanoline vaccine is supplied from this Institute to several places in British India.

X. MISCELLANEOUS.

The Medical Stores at Bangalore, besides supplying the requirements of the Hospitals and Dispensaries maintained by or under the direct control of the Medical Department, makes supplies on credit to other Departments, such as the Agricultural, Forest, Railway, Survey and Veterinary. Till 23rd April 1917, the arrangement under which the Senior Surgeon was in charge of this Institute, with a Superintendent in sub-charge, continued and since that date the Institution is placed in direct charge of a Superintendent.

Medical
Stores,
Bangalore.

Government have prescribed rules to regulate the grant, to Government servants and to indigent persons unconnected with public service in the State, of concessions designed to enable them, when bitten by a rabid animal, to proceed without delay for treatment to the Pasteur Institute at Coonoor.

Grant of con-
cessions for
treatment at
the Pasteur
Institute,
Coonoor.

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CHAPTER VII.

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

EARLY SYSTEMS OF INSTRUCTION.

THE subject of Education is so vast and the work done in the State in connection with it is of so diversified a character that it is necessary at the outset to get, if possible, a clear idea of the earlier systems of education that prevailed in it. These systems have held sway for long centuries in it and they still possess a vitality which is by no means negligible. If properly utilized, or at least turned into proper channels, they are likely to prove still useful to the country. That they produced great men and earnest seekers after truth is undeniable. That they developed ideals worthy of praise and difficult of attainment, except under the severest discipline, seems also impossible of contradiction. It is of some interest, therefore, to know their bases, in order to rightly appreciate the conditions in which an educational system conceived on modern lines can be made to produce the best results.

The early system and their ideals.

There is evidence to believe that the Brāhmanic System of Education prevalent in other parts of India was in vogue in Mysore as well since the earliest times. This system was closely connected with religion and ritualism. The hymns of the *Rig-Vēda* refer alike to teachers and the taught. These hymns, which pertain to rituals as practised at the sacrifices, presuppose learning. Necessity led in course of time to special schools of Vēdic learning, at which young Brāhmins learnt what they chose to specialize in. The teaching appears to have

The Brahmanic system: Education of the Brahman youth.

been entirely oral, the student committing to memory the particular *Vēda* he desired. Practical instruction was probably restricted to learning his duties as a priest of the particular school to which he belonged; possibly also he learnt the meaning of the hymns and the ritual acts. This instruction was called *vidhi* and the explanation *arthavāda*. The student collected firewood and alms for his teacher, and apparently lived under his care. The offering of firewood in after times became the traditional mode of offering oneself as a student. A succession of teachers, who transmitted the sacrificial science, is also spoken of in the *Satapatha Brāhmaṇa*. The ceremony of initiation into studentship, called *Upanayana*, is also described in it. The essence of that ceremony is for the student to declare his studentship and for the teacher to accept the responsibility of his position by saying, "I am thy teacher." Slowly, it came to be recognized that a long period of studentship was necessary for the study of the *Vēdas*. Both in the *Brāhmaṇas* and the *Upanishads* there occur references to this period of studentship. Its actual duration came eventually to be recognized as twelve years. The curriculum during the Upanishadic period was a comprehensive one, including not only the *Vēdas* but also grammar, sacrifices, mathematics, logic, ethics, etymology, warfare, astronomy, etc., besides the practical arts of dancing, singing, playing and other fine arts. The discipline was exacting during the period of studentship. Pupils had to work for themselves and for their teacher, collect fuel and alms for him and also feed his cattle. They followed their teacher and awaited his command. It was also the custom to travel far and wide to attach themselves to celebrated teachers. Renowned teachers likewise itinerated from place to place. As a rule, however, a student remained in the house of the teacher till he finished his course, at the end of which he entered into the married state.

Before leaving, he received the admonition from his teacher : "Say what is true. Do thy duty. Do not neglect the study of the *Vēdas*." From the married life, he was to pass into the *Vānaprastha* or *forest hermit*, and thence into *Sanyāsa*, or *wandering ascetic*. The theory of the *Āsramas* as ultimately worked out conceived the whole life as an education for the life beyond with four distinct stages, of which studentship was the first and *sanyāsa* the last. Education slowly extended from the Brāhman to the other classes, the Kshatriyas and the Vaisyas. They too, in time, came to be included, under the head of "twice-born," the initiation ceremony being adapted for them as well. In their cases, the training was adapted to their respective vocations in life.

The mutual duties of students and teachers were well defined. Strict obedience to the teacher was enjoined, while the teacher was to love the pupil as his own son and to give full personal attention to his instruction. He was to receive no fee, while it was the duty of the student, when his course finished, to offer him a present. The system of teaching was individual, each pupil being separately taught his particular branch of study. It is possible, in later times, the teacher's son or his elder pupils helped him in his work. There is some reason to believe that originally *parishads* or assemblies of learned Brāhmans for deciding canonical or other disputed questions were composed of teachers of note. These should have in later times developed into Universities, such as Taxila, Benares, Nadia, etc., or into monastic institutions or *Mathas*, such as those founded by Sankarāchārya (8th century A. D.) at Sringeri, Badari, Puri and Dwāraka.

In the 5th century A. D., we find the founder of the Kadamba Dynasty in this State travelling all the way to Kānchi, then a great seat of learning, in order to pursue his studies in advanced subjects. Similarly,

Akalanka, the Jain disputant, in the 8th century, went to the Baudha College at Ponataga, near Tiruvettur in the present North Arcot District. The most celebrated of the Mutts referred to above is still in existence at Sringeri, in this State. Descendants of the learned teachers who helped the commentator Mādhava in his laborious work are still to be found in this place. In later times, Sanskrit Schools called *Pāthasālas*, analogous to the *Tolls* in Bengal, have played a useful part in continuing this ancient system of education. Individual teachers as well have taught—and they are still to be found in the State—in their homes language, logic, *Vēdānta* and other subjects. A recent writer reviewing this old-world system of education says that “it was at least not inferior to the education of Europe before the Revival of Learning. Not only did the Brāhman educators develop a system of education which survived the crumbling of empires and the changes of society, but they also, through all these thousands of years, kept aglow the torch of higher learning and numbered amongst them many great thinkers who have left their mark not only upon the learning of India, but upon the intellectual life of the world.”

Education of
Kshatriyas.

As regards Kshatriyas or Warriors, their schooling appears to have been somewhat different from that of young Brāhmins. Presumably, it was one suited to their future vocation. They would, for instance, have learnt less of the *Vēda* and more of the use of arms and military skill. That some knowledge of the *Vēda* and of the *Upanishads* was considered necessary may be inferred from the variety of evidence available on the point. In their case also, education was regarded as a time of *āsrāma*, or discipline, and a stage in the preparation for life after death. The *Dharmasāstras* contain the germ of the science of politics which was later more fully

developed in the *Nīti* and *Arthasāstras*. Gautama, for instance, states that the king shall be "fully instructed in the three-fold sacred science and in logic." He adds that the administration of justice shall be by the *Vēda*, the *Dharmasāstras*, the six *Angas* and the *Purāna* from which it may be inferred that the royal princes were expected to learn these also during the period of their studentship. Since the *Rig-Vēda* (IV. 42,5) refers to military combats amongst youthful warriors, it may be presumed that a knowledge of the arms and of military skill was considered a necessity in the case of Kshatriya youths. Much of their time too, during the days of their schooling, should have been appropriated to this part of their training. The *Mahābhārata* mentions many varieties of military skill. This included fighting on horseback and on elephants, in chariots and on the ground. The weapons used were the club, the sword, the lance, the spear, the dart, and above all the bow. According to the *Rāmāyana*, Rāma and his brothers were "versed in the *Vēdas*, and heroic and intent upon the welfare of others." Rāma, we are told, "could ride on elephants and horses, and was an adept in managing cars (chariots), and he was ever engaged in the study of arms and was occupied in ministering unto his sire." This shows that the chief aims of education in the case of the young Kshatriyas in early times were the study of the *Vēdas*, military skill and high moral conduct. If the *Arthasāstra* can be taken to speak of the Mauryan times (4th century B. C.), there must have been a considerable development of Kshatriya education during that period. The science of politics had so far progressed as to bring into existence many different schools of thought. The greater attention paid to the fitting up of royal princes to the duties of their high office is amply spoken to by the author of the *Arthasāstra*. It has been suggested that this development in Kshatriya education might have

been due to the fear of Persian invasions, which had in Darius' reign ended in the creation of a *satrapy* in the Indus valley, while the raid of Alexander, perhaps, did not fail to stimulate the desire for it. To whatever cause it was due, there is no doubt that the development itself did take place. According to Kautilya, the curriculum of royal study included *Anvikshiki* (Sāṅkhya, Yoga and Lokāyata philosophy), the triple *Vēdas*, *Vārta* (i.e., agriculture, cattle breeding and trade) and *Dandanīti* (Science of Government, including criminal law). Discipline was apparently much stressed, for it is stated to be the basis of *Dandanīti*. Discipline was in the case of some enforced by instruction, i.e., the cultivation of the mind, and in the case of others, by punishment. "Sciences," says Kautilya, "shall be studied, and their precepts strictly observed under the authority of specialist teachers. Having undergone the ceremony of tonsure, the student shall learn the alphabet and arithmetic. After investiture with the sacred thread, he shall study the triple *Vēdas*, the science of *Anvikshiki* under teachers of acknowledged authority, the science of *Vārta* under Government Superintendents, and the science of *Dandanīti* under theoretical and practical politicians." Thus, in regard to the two last, theory was apparently coupled to practice, and the realities of actual life were not forgotten. The course of study extended, it would seem, to six years, after the investiture of the sacred thread, i.e., up to the sixteenth year of a prince. He was then to enter the married state. This would mean, in the case of a Kshatriya, a reduction by one-half of the period of studentship of a Brāhman youth. During the period of study, he was in close touch with his teachers, and subject to their strict control. The courses of study were carefully mapped out for the full day, provision being made even for the revision of not only "old lessons," but also hearing "over and over again what has

not been clearly understood." In the programme of work prescribed, a special function is assigned to "hearing the *Itihāsa*" in the afternoon, the forenoon being devoted to "receiving lessons in military arts concerning elephants, horses, chariots, and weapons." *Itihāsa* is said to include *Purāna*, *Itivṛitta* (history), *Akhyāyika* (tales), *Udāharana* (illustrative stories), *Dharmasāstra*, and *Arthasāstra*. The first four would include mythological and epic tales, and those moral fables and stories such as were collected (afterwards) in the *Panchatantra* and the *Hitōpadēsa*. The last two include what would now be termed law and political science and would cover the theoretical part of *Vārta* and *Dandanīti* "From hearing," says Kautilya, "ensues knowledge; from knowledge, steady application (*yōga*) is possible; and from application, self-possession (*ātmavattā*) is possible. This is what is meant by efficiency in learning (*Vidyāsāmarthyam*). The king, who is well educated and disciplined in sciences, devoted to good Government of his subjects, and bent on doing good to all people, will enjoy the earth unopposed." A modern educational critic observes that "the programme of education thus outlined is by no means an unworthy scheme for the education of a young prince. It shows the wonderful powers which these early Brāhman educators had of adapting their system to the needs of the pupils and of devising a vocational training for the sons of noble families." Manu, whose Law dates from about 200 A. D., though based on an older *Mānava Dharma Sāstra*, does not differ materially from the author of the *Arthasāstra* in regard to the course of study he prescribes for a royal prince. "From those versed in the three *Vēdas*," he says, "let him learn the three-fold sacred science, the primæval science of Government, the science of dialectics, and the knowledge of the supreme Soul; from the people, the theory of the various trades and

professions." The science of Government corresponds to the *Dandanīti* of the *Arthasāstra* and "the various trades" referred to would fall under *Vārta*. A knowledge of language was presumably necessary inasmuch as the study of the science of dialectics is mentioned with that of the *Vēdas* and the philosophy based on them. As regards text-books, Kshatriya scholars apparently learnt the *Vēdas* and allied subjects from the books commonly in use among Brāhman youths. For the science of politics, special manuals like the *Arthasāstra* and the *Nītisāra* of Kāmandaka, a work based on the *Arthasāstra* and belonging to about the 3rd century A. D., came to be specially written. *Nītivākyāmṛita* of Sōmadēva Sūri, dating from about the 10th century A.D., and *Nītisāra* of Sukrāchārya, belonging to about the same period, are other similar treatises, obviously based to a large extent on the *Arthasāstra*. In view of the difficulty involved in teaching a subject of such practical importance as Political Science, the preceptors of the day seemed to have devised the plan of using fables and stories as a vehicle for teaching it. The famous *Panchatantra* (about 6th century A. D.) and its prototype *Tantrākhyāyikā* (dated by scholars variously from the 4th century B. C. to 4th century A. D.) owes their origin to this necessity. The *Panchatantra* was, we are specially told, composed for the instruction of royal youth in the knowledge of right conduct. The *Hitōpadēsa*, which is based on it, is a work of the same character, attributed to the 14th century A. D. The *Kathāsaritsāgara* and the *Mahābhārata* contain similar matter which may have been used for purposes of instruction. Heroic tales abound in the great epics, the *Mahābhārata* and the *Rāmāyana*, and in later days they should have used the bardic chronicles, which date from about the 7th century A. D. Fights were conducted on well-understood principles and a spirit of chivalry was undoubtedly cultivated among

warriors as the result of the training they received. Brāhmanic control over royal education was rendered effective by the consideration that the Kshatriya was to primarily learn from the Brāhman, and to protect and honour him. This did not mean, in actual practice, that he cannot receive instruction in trade and other matters from others, but education proper, the grounding in the fundamentals of mental culture, proceeded from the Brāhman. In their after life, kings continued to receive advice and help, perhaps constantly, from the *Purōhit* (Family priest), whose influence must have been, if not great, at least not negligible. Apart from aberrant cases, the generality of *Purōhits* seem to have used their influence for the good of the State. As the Rev. Keay well puts it, "probably many of them were men of high character, whose moral influence on their pupils was distinctly good. India has had many famous rulers, who were educated under this system and many who attained also to literary merit." Among the latter we must mention King Harsha (606 to 648 A. D.) to whom several plays and verse compositions have been ascribed. In Southern India, we might put in the same category several Ganga Kings of Mysore and some at least of the Vijayanagar Kings. Mādhava II (3rd century A.D.), Durvinīta (5th and 6th century A. D.), and Srīpurusha (8th century A. D.) of the Ganga dynasty were royal authors. King Krishnarāya of the Vijayanagar Dynasty (1509-1530 A. D.) attained equal celebrity both as a literary patron and as an author.

It may be remarked, in the words of the Rev. Keay, that "the education of young Indian nobles was not inferior to that of the European Knights in the times of chivalry, and was very much like it in many respects. The note of personal ambition and of adventure for adventure's sake seemed much less prominent in the Indian ideal than in the European, and perhaps hardly existed,

and the gentler virtues such as patience and filial devotion were much more emphasized, as we see in the story of Rāma. The idea that the King and the nobles had a duty to perform to society in the protection of the weak, and that their position is not one so much of glory and of ease as of service to others is very prominent. No doubt, many of them failed to live up to this noble ideal, but, in formulating it and holding it before the rising generation of young Kshatriyas, India has much of which to be proud."

Education of
Vaisyas.

In regard to the Vaisyas, or the trading and agricultural classes, their education was not neglected in the Brāhmanic System. Gautama (i) says that they were also expected to receive initiation as a preliminary to entering upon the study of the *Vēda*. Manu (x 1) states that they should, like the two other twice-born castes, "discharge their prescribed duties," and "study the *Vēda*." As in the case of the Kshatriyas, so in that of the Vaisyas, it is possible the *Vēdic* course was rendered less exacting, greater emphasis being laid on their learning their future vocations. Thus, Manu (IX. 328-332) describes the functions of a Vaisya: "A Vaisya must never conceive this wish, 'I will not keep cattle,' and if a Vaisya is willing to keep them, they must never be kept by men of other castes. A Vaisya must know the respective value of gems, of pearls, of corals, of metals, of cloth made of thread, of perfumes, and of condiments. He must be acquainted with the manner of sowing seeds, and of the good and bad qualities of fields, and he must perfectly know all measures and weights: moreover, the excellence and defects of commodities, the advantages and disadvantages of different countries, the probable profit and loss on merchandise, and the means of properly rearing cattle. He must be acquainted with the proper wages of servants, with the various languages

of men, with the manner of keeping goods, and the rules of purchase and sale." These different duties would naturally require of a young Vaisya, besides a knowledge of agriculture, something of the rudiments of commercial geography, arithmetic, and some languages, as well as the practical details of trade. Perhaps, each boy at first learnt what he required under these heads from his own father as now in the course of business. Thus, his education, apart from the *Vēda*, would be more domestic than otherwise. In later days, it is possible special trade schools (corresponding to the surviving *mahājani* schools) came to exist at different centres, towards the maintenance of which the trades of each locality contributed from their profits.

As regards craftsmen, it is worthy of note that they have a long and uninterrupted course of history to their credit. The Village Twelve included a few artisans and craftsmen. Some of the occupations go back to the earliest times. In the *Rig-Veda* (IX. 112, I. 110, 3; i; III, 1) we find mentioned the carpenter, physician, priest, blacksmith, poet, and the female grinder of corn. The construction of chariots is often mentioned, and the Ribhus are described as distinguished workers in wood and metal. Weaving, boat-building, leather-working, agriculture, and irrigation are also alluded to. With the growth of cities, craftsmen apparently drifted into them from the villages. The guilds we find referred to in the *Rāmāyana* and the *Arthasāstra* (IV. 1), some of which have survived to modern times, and evidently owed their origins to the influence of City life. The excellence of their work attracted the attention of Kings, who drafted them for work at their capitals. Royal craftsmen are said to have been established even as early as the time of the Buddhist Emperor Asōka. The education on which their excellence depended was

Education of
Craftsmen.

apparently of the simplest kind. Originally, the caste system, into which the craft system, with its many disadvantages, was built, helped to keep up the standard of work, and the dexterity and skill of each particular trade was handed down from father to son. Each craftsman and each caste was considered as in duty bound to, perform his or its particular work for the good of society. The system of education, then, for the lads of each particular trade could have been only a domestic one. They could have had practically no choice in the matter, but were, as a matter of course, brought up to the same trade as their fathers. Where the father was living and in good health, he would usually train up his own son, and the young craftsman would, from the beginning, be trained in the actual workshop. Thus not only was there a most affectionate relation between teacher and pupil, but the training was free from the artificiality of the school-room. The boy was taught by observing and handling real things, and the father would take a great delight in passing on to his son the skill which he himself possessed. It was not merely a question of actual teaching, but the boy would day by day absorb unconsciously the traditions and spirit of the particular craft which he was learning. In many arts and crafts, drawing would be a necessary accompaniment. This was learnt by the boy drawing first certain particular curves on a panel. After this came the drawing of certain traditional ornaments and conventional figures of mythical animals and other forms. Drawing was not taught from nature. In the majority of occupations, a knowledge of reading and writing would not be required for the direct purposes of the craft, and would not be learnt. But certain Sanskrit works would in certain occupations be learnt by heart. These contained traditional rules relating to the particular craft, and would not only be learnt but also explained to the novice. The craftsman

also participated in all religious rites, and in various ways came to know something of the mythology and doctrines of the religion he professed. Thus, the education imparted to the young craftsman was entirely vocational, and even narrowly so. The literary side was defective and, though religious education was not altogether neglected, his knowledge generally can only have been scrappy and ill-learned. Yet, as a vocational education, it was evidently not lacking in elements that made it really valuable. The affectionate and family relationship between teacher and pupils, the absence of artificiality in the instruction, and the opportunity and encouragement to produce really good work which the protection of the guild or caste gave—these were not without their influence in helping to build up a spirit of good craftsmanship, which was responsible for the production of really fine work.

The education of girls was likewise entirely domestic and vocational, in the sense that they were being prepared for that which was considered a woman's principal work—the duties of the household. There is ample evidence, however, that in earlier times women enjoyed a higher status. The authorship of some *Vēdic* hymns (*R̥ig-Vēda*, VIII. 80; X.39,40) is ascribed to women and in the discussion of deep philosophic truths women are related to have taken part. (*Bri. Ar. Up.* iii. 6, 8; ii. 4; iv. 5). In the *Bṛihad-Āraṇyaka Upanishad* (IV. 4.17) is also described what a man should do if he wished that a learned daughter should be born to him. By the time of Manu, however, women had lost their high position, for their perpetual dependence is there set down in specific terms in the famous and oft-quoted passage (V.147-149): "By a girl, by a young woman, or even by an aged one, nothing must be done independently, even in her own house. In childhood, a female must be

Women's
Education.

subject to her father, in youth to her husband, when her lord is dead to her sons; a woman must never be independent. She must not seek to separate herself from her father, husband, or sons; by leaving them, would make both her own and her husband's families contemptible." The only education that a girl received in Manu's time was one which fitted her to fulfil her duties in the household of her husband. "Let the husband employ his wife," says Manu (IX.11), "in the collection and expenditure of his wealth, in keeping everything clean, in the fulfilment of religious duties, in the preparation of his food, and in looking after the household utensils." The training for this began in her own home under the supervision of her mother, and, when she was married and went to live with her husband, it would be continued, under the joint-family system, by her mother-in-law. The injunction that she should be employed in the collection and expenditure of her husband's wealth would seem to imply some knowledge of simple accounts, though it could not have meant much. The daughters of Kings and wealthy persons might have received some education from their fathers or family priests. Girls of learned families also were not left wholly without instruction. Thus we find the Kannada poet Nāgavarma (10th century A.D.) addressing verses of his *Chhandombudhi*, a work on prosody, to his wife. An ancient inscription in the Kolar District records the death of the learned Sāvinemma, daughter of Nāgārajannayya. Then we have the instance of Honnamma at the Court of Mysore in the seventeenth century (*vide* Vol. II, Chap. IX, *Literature*). But such cases were exceptional, like that of the late well-known Pandita Ramābai of our own times, who was taught Sanskrit by her father in the wilds of Gangāmūla in the Kadur District. Despite the somewhat narrow ideal of domestic virtue and capability set before them, Indian women have shown, even in the

circumscribed sphere they have been allowed to move, that they can realize it. Sita as an ideal for women to follow is by no means an unworthy one.

In view of the Mysore State being one of the chief centres of Jainism in India, and the prime seat of the Digambara Jains, and the long and uninterrupted history they have had in it, it seems necessary to say a few words about their system of education. As might be expected, their system is essentially based on the Brāhmanic model. The reason for this is that Mahāvīra, the founder of the Jain religion, did not profess to break away from the older faith and some of his cardinal doctrines were directly derived from it. Teaching was a duty with the Jains, the *Jaina Sūtras* enumerating long lists of the more famous teachers. These same *Sūtras* lay down how monks and nuns should behave when wandering with their teacher, from which the inference follows that the Jains adopted the Brāhmanic mode of teaching while wandering. Students apparently sought out the more famous teachers, who were among the "wanderers," for learning from them, and rules for the regulation of their conduct while thus learning came to be established in course of time. Discipline was strict; a monk, for instance, was not allowed to go out or do anything without asking leave of the teacher or under-teacher. In the *Questions of Milinda*, the position of a teacher towards his student is described as that of a father towards his son, an idea that is predominant, as stated above, in the Brāhmanic system. The same work enumerates as many as twenty-five virtues of a teacher and ten virtues of a lay disciple. The teacher's position was a sacred one: honour is due to a teacher even though he be only a novice. The *Sūtras* lay down specifically how a pupil should behave towards his teacher, and how a teacher should treat his pupil. Mutual good feeling is insisted

The Jaina
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upon at every stage. Bad pupils are compared—in the *Jaina Sūtras*—to unmanageable bullocks. Obedience to a teacher is so much insisted upon that it is considered one of the articles necessary for perfection. As in the Brāhmanic system, a pupil should serve his teacher; so much, indeed, is this duty stressed, that service comes to be described as one of the internal austerities to be observed. Learning is throughout given an exalted position in this system, and that it was widely appreciated is evident from the vast literature the Jains have developed in Sanskrit, Prākṛit and the chief Dravidian languages of South India. Even distinctions between the respective faiths of student and teacher are forgotten so far as learning is concerned. The *Sūtras* declare in clear and unambiguous language that he, who has learned from a Buddhist or a Brāhman even one noble truth only, will reverence him like a deity or a sacred shrine. A more exalted position a teacher cannot aspire to nor can a pupil give. Religious instruction, as might be inferred, is a necessity; in fact, it is the one thing in the view of the older writers which demanded particular attention. But the secular pursuits which the generality of the Jains pursued—and still pursue—made them popularize the secular aspects of education to a large extent. Their literature bears ample evidence for this view. That apart, the *Jaina Sūtras* lay down that religious instruction is one of the four requisites to reach beatitude. As to the system of teaching adopted, it apparently did not materially differ from the Brahmanic one; oral teaching was at first the rule, though, in later times, writing should have been largely resorted to. Individual attention was a *sine qua non*. In the *Jaina Sūtras*, we have an expressive simile in regard to it, which may be aptly quoted here. As the birds feed their young ones, we are told, so are disciples regularly to be instructed. The pains to be taken by the

teacher in coaching the young scholar were apparently immense, and it is clear too that the duty was lovingly undertaken by him. That the Jains honoured the educated and held in the highest esteem education is eloquently testified to by their extant literature and inscriptions found in the State. They were among the first to use the vernacular languages for literary purposes. They specially revere, in their prayer-formula, their teachers (*upādhyāyas*) and attach special merit to gifts of the four kinds:—food, shelter, medicine and teaching. (*Epigraphia Carnatica* II, Sravana-Belgola 126, dated 1113 A.D.). The epitaph of Buchana, dated in 1113 A.D., describes him as a “taker of delight” in these four gifts and bemoans that by his death “the goddess of learning was now left uncared for in the world.” (*Ibid*). The earliest Jain inscriptions refer to the intellect of persons being “brightened by the water of learning.” (See *Epigraphia Carnatica* II, Sravana Belgola 75, dated about 650 A.D.), and talk of kings who were “liberal to the learned. (Sravana Belgola 139, dated about 950 A.D.). Numerous inscriptions of the 12th and 13th centuries are a witness to the high state of learning and teaching then current among the Jains in the State.) *Epigraphia Carnatica* II, Sravana Belgola inscriptions, *et passim*).

Buddhism was a living religion in parts at least of the State during the centuries before the Christian era and for some centuries afterwards. A few words on the Buddhist system of education may therefore not be out of place. That system, like the Jain, was largely an adaptation of the Brāhmanic. The rules governing the relations between the teacher and the student were directly taken from it. Service and obedience were exacted from the student, and from the teacher loving instruction as from a father was due.

The Buddhist
System.

In the Asoka Edicts found in the State, the injunction is laid down that the "teacher should be honoured by the pupil." According to the *Vinaya Texts*, pupils were to wait upon each other during sickness. Not only that, if the pupil was sick, the preceptor was not only to nurse him, but to wait upon him and attend to him, just as the pupil was required to wait upon himself in health. A teacher was known as *upajjhava* and a pupil *saddhivihārika*. The ceremony of choosing a teacher was an adaptation of the Brāhman initiation ceremony. The *Mahāvagga* gives elaborate details of the variety of services expected of the student, including the sweeping of the place occupied by the teacher if it is dirty. If the teacher so desired, the student was to follow him on his begging tours. The pupil was not to accept presents, or give presents, or wait on any one else, or go out, without the permission of the preceptor. If the preceptor was sick, he was to wait on him and nurse him diligently. This system, which was apparently in existence long before Asōka's days, was practically in force in the days of the Chinese traveller I-Tsing (673-687 A. D.). The need for education was keenly felt among Buddhists because they had to provide for the training of novices. The monasteries that came to exist in course of time took up their training and from it a system of secular instruction was also developed, apparently side by side with the training of novices and monks. The one should have proved a source of strength to the other, and from the secular students should have been recruited in time to the novices. The example of the Brāhmanic system also should have helped in the same direction. Fa-Hien, the Chinese traveller, who visited India between 399 A. D. and 414 A. D., testifies to the existence of monasteries at Patna and elsewhere for students and inquirers getting their doubts cleared in them. The oral method appears to have been largely in vogue in the Punjab, though in the

more eastern regions of India, writing was frequently used. Fa-Hien records the fact that he could not get copies of the *Discipline* in Northern India "as they were handed down orally from one Patriarch to another" and so had to extend his journey towards Central India and stay at the monasteries there to copy them down from written texts. In the time of Hiuen-Tsiang (629-645 A.D.), learning was apparently highly valued, the description given by him of Nalanda, the famous university, near the modern town of Patna, being quite a graphic one. He tells us that there were in it several thousands of priests "of the highest ability and talent." They apparently set the standard for all India, as we are expressly told that "the countries of India respect them and follow them." Hiuen-Tsiang adds: "The day is not sufficient for asking and answering questions. From morning till night they engage in discussion; the old and the young mutually help one another..... Learned men from different Cities, on this account, who desire to acquire quickly a renown in discussion come here in multitudes to settle their doubts, and then the streams of their wisdom spread far and wide. For this reason, some persons usurp the name (of Nalanda students) and in going to and fro receive honour in consequence. If men from other quarters desire to enter and take part in discussions, the keeper of the gate proposes some hard questions; many are unable to answer and retire. One must have studied deeply both old and new (books) before getting admission." He remarks that seventy or eighty per cent of such would-be residents of Nalanda failed to pass the test for admission. He also gives a long list of the more famous teachers who lived at Nalanda and not only taught but wrote treatises, commentaries, and other works. During I-Tsing's visit, about thirty-eight years later, Nalanda was still a flourishing centre of learning. It had, he says, two hundred villages to

support it. These had been donated to it by generations of kings. He gives us a valuable picture of how students spent their time at Nalanda, which may be taken as typical of what was done at the lesser seats of learning. He says that the pupil, after attending to the service of the teacher, "reads a portion of scripture and reflects on what he has learnt. He acquires new knowledge day by day and searches into old subjects month after month, without losing a minute." Considerable stress was, it would seem, laid on learning Sanskrit grammar, which was apparently the sheet-anchor of all learning. The study of grammar extended from the sixth year of a boy to his twentieth year, when he passed on to other subjects. Pānini's *Sūtras* and other works had to be learnt by-heart. It is also plain that, before passing on to Nalanda or Valabhi (in Western India), students studied under instructors. The other subjects learnt included logic, metaphysics, and religion. Medicine was another subject, though not forming part of the course. I-Tsing gives a vivid picture of the eloquence and debating powers of the students at Nalanda. "To try the sharpness," he says, "of their wit, they proceed to the King's Court to lay down before it the sharp weapon of their abilities; there they present their schemes, and show their (political) talent, seeking to be appointed in the practical government." Then their fame spreads, and "they receive grants of land and are advanced to a high rank; their famous names are, as a reward, written in white on their lofty gates. After this, they can follow whatever occupation they like." It may be inferred from this that Buddhist monasteries imparted instruction not only to those who entered the order but also to others. An education that fostered the idea of employment in "practical government" should have been secular to some extent. Moreover, in those days, the division between secular and religious education was not apparently so well marked as

in modern times. All education was up to a degree religious, and then it branched off into secular channels. Moreover, the ease with which people could enter the religious order and leave it, and re-enter it even, should have made it possible to use the education received in the monasteries for religious or secular purposes as required. There were other universities besides Nalanda and Valabhi; at least five more are known of which Kānchi, the modern Conjeevaram, and Sri Dhanyakataka, on the Krishna, in the present Guntur Taluk, were situated in Southern India. At all these universities, the teaching was probably nearly the same. The teaching, though adapted from that prevailing in the Brāhmanic schools, was suited to the times and shows a desire to meet the new tendencies of the times. The stress laid on medicine is clear indication of this desire and quite in keeping with the dictates of Buddhist religion. Education was made available to a larger number also through the growth of teachers in the land, which was rendered possible by the spread of Buddhism. When it declined, the demand for some kind of popular education, which it had so far met and which it had stimulated, could only have been met by a growth in the popular elementary schools dealt with below.

From time immemorial, there has existed in India, with the Brāhmanic, Jain and Buddhist *āśramic* and monastic schools, a popular system of elementary education open generally to all who desired to take advantage of it. It must have met a popular demand for instruction in reading, writing and arithmetic. It should have had its origin primarily in the needs of the agricultural and trading classes, who have largely made use of it. This education has been imparted in almost every large village and town of India. The institution through which this instruction has been given is known differently in different

The popular indigenous system :
Origin and History.

parts of India. In Bengal and Upper India, it goes by the name of *Pāthasāla*; in the South and West of India by the names of *Pallikūdam* (Tamil), *Pallikutta* and *Sāli* (Kannada), *Sāle* (Marathi), *Badi* or *Pallikūtam* (Telugu), etc. In Southern India generally, it is known by the familiar name of *Pial* school because it is usually located in the *pial* or earthen platform 3 to 4 feet high, 4 to 6 feet broad and about 8 to 12 feet long, which is built against the front wall of most houses. The system of education imparted in it has been nearly the same throughout India. Descriptions of the same may be found in many official reports of which the best known are the reports issued in Bengal by Mr. William Adam between 1835-1838. Inquiries into the system of education were carried out in Madras in 1822-1826; and in Bombay in 1823-1828. The report of the Education Commission of 1882 also gives an account of it as it existed in Bombay at the time. Going back to the 17th century, Pietra della Valle, in his *Travels* (II. 227), furnishes a picture of a *pial* school, held in the porch of a village temple. It does not materially differ from a school of the kind still to be seen in any large village in Southern India.

Its curriculum
of studies in
different parts
of India.

In Bengal, the curriculum included reading, writing, the composition of letters and elementary arithmetic and accounts, either commercial or agricultural or both. There were four stages of instruction. In the first period, the scholar was taught to form letters on the ground with a small stick. This period, usually lasted some ten days. In the next period, the master traced letters on a palm leaf with an iron style. The scholar then traced over the letters with a reed pen and charcoal ink, which easily rubs out. Then he practised on another leaf. He was afterwards exercised in writing and pronouncing the compound consonants, which in most Indian languages are modified

when written together. The practice was given in the combination of vowels and consonants and this led on to the common names of persons. In the third period, the palm leaf was replaced by the larger plantain leaf. The scholar now began to learn the composition of the simplest forms of letters. He was taught the connection of words in sentences and to distinguish literary from colloquial forms of speech. The rules of arithmetic now began with addition and subtraction. But multiplication and division were not taught as separate rules. These were effected by addition and subtraction, aided by multiplication tables which extended to twenty. The multiplication table was repeated aloud by the whole school once every morning. After this, the pupil began to learn commercial or agricultural accounts or both. When the scholar reached the fourth period, he received more advanced instruction in accounts and began the composition of business letters, petitions, grants and similar productions. Paper now began to be used for writing, and after it had been used for years, the scholar was considered as qualified to engage in the unassisted perusal of works like the Vernacular *Rāmāyana*, etc.

In Bombay, the boys were every day collected by the teacher. After an invocation to Sarasvati, Ganapati or other deity, in which the whole school joined, regular work commenced. Boys who could write traced the letters on their *Kittas* or copy slips, with a dry pen, the object of this exercise being to give free play to the fingers and wrist and to accustom them to the sweep of the letters. After this, the boys wrote copies. Then, the youngest children claimed attention.

In Madras, the *pial* schools gave instruction in the three R's, a great deal of time being spent in memorizing moral sayings in the vernacular. Then the vernacular catechism was taught. Writing was, as elsewhere in India, taught in close connection with reading, the scholar

beginning his writing lessons when he commenced the alphabet. The alphabet was learned by writing with the finger on the sand-strewn ground. Later, he began to write with a pencil on a small black-board (*palagai, palaka* or *halige*), the surface of which was prepared from rice and charcoal. Then he wrote either on *Kajam* leaves with an iron style, or with a reed pen on paper. Trading and agricultural accounts were also taught, besides the composition of notes-of-hand, leases, agreements, etc., and the reading of the vernacular current hand.

Everywhere the school commenced at 6 A.M. and ended at about 10 A.M., when the boys returned home. Again they re-assembled at 3 P.M. and studied till sunset, when they left the school for the day. In Mysore, the instruction given in the indigenous schools did not aim at anything beyond the elements of reading, writing and arithmetic, and generally resulted in a marvellous cultivation of the memory. Reading was from manuscripts on palm leaf. The first lessons in writing were on the sand, with the finger: after some progress had been made, blackened boards were used, written on with potstone. Arithmetic consisted principally of the *memoriter* repetition in chorus, led by the head boy, of endless tables of fractional and integral numbers, useful for mental calculation in ordinary petty business transactions. The three days before new and full moon were unlucky for study, and the schools were then closed; also on numerous festival days. Discipline was maintained by a number of cruel and often grotesque punishments, which are now obsolete. But the cane remains, and is the symbol of the school-master's office. The masters are generally supported by small payments and perquisites in kind, or by a contract for a certain period with some influential resident. It was always the custom for the school-master at the Mahānavami festival to perambulate the streets with his pupils gaily dressed, who performed the stick dance and recited

humorous verses of dialogues, in all of which they had been trained for some time before. In return for these entertainments, the masters used to pocket considerable sums as presents from the parents and friends of the boys. But the practice is falling out of vogue.

There is abundant evidence to believe that neither secular nor religious (*i.e.*, Vēdic) education was neglected in this State in the earliest times of which we have any record. Thus in the Asōka Edicts found in the State (252 B. C.), we find, as already stated, the injunction that the "teacher should be honoured by the pupil." Nripa-tunga, writing in the 9th century, says expressly of the Kannada people that they knew how to teach wisdom to young children, and even words to the deaf. We have already stated that sometimes a school-master was provided among the members of the Village Twelve. Inscriptions at Shikarpur and Tālgunda (Shimoga District), dated in the 11th and 12th centuries, provide for the establishment of hostels for students. Under the Chōlas, we have an inscription of Rājēndrachōla II, dated in 1072 A.D., at Mulbagal, which exempts the house of the school-master (with those of the temple manager and the village watchmen) from taxation. An inscription dated in the 10th century registers a grant to a teacher by the Ganga King Nitimārga (*E. C. V*, Hassan, Arkalgud 24). Another dated in 1174 A. D. mentions among other matters the appointment of masters to teach boys Karnāta, *i.e.*, Kannada, and to feed them, (*Ibid*, Arsikere 138). A far more interesting inscription dated in 1181 A. D. (*E. C. IV*, Mysore i, Chamrajnagar 158) registers a gift by the wife of a celebrated physician of the time for, among other things, the imparting of instruction to boys. The Hoysala minister Perumāla Dēva, in 1290 A.D., provides by a land grant for carrying on the instruction of youths in various languages (*Khandika bāla-sikṣhe*).

Religious and
Secular
Education
in the State.

For those who taught the *Rig-Vēda*, six *gadyanas* a year was to be paid; and for those who taught boys to read Nāgara, Kannada, Tamil and Ārya, six *gadyanas* was provided for by him. (*E.C.* III T.-Narsipur 27). Apparently, the foundation was a combined institution for both religious and secular instruction. The payment, it is specially added, was to be “free of all imposts as long as the sun and moon endure.” In a Tirthahalli inscription (*E.C.* VIII. Tirthahalli. 42) dated in 1642 A.D., the stipulation is made that provisions passed customs duty free in favour of the Mahantina-Matha, Kavale-durga, were not to be sold outside, but be stored in it as a fund and used for the support of the Professors and students of the six *Darsanas*, *i.e.*, schools of philosophy for thus carrying on the *dharma* of the *Matha*.

The teachers in Bengal were usually Kāyasthas, but not infrequently also Brāhmans; while in Madras and Bombay, they were generally Brāhmans. In this State, they have been usually Brāhmans. Education began usually at the age of five years.

Its chief
character-
istics.

In regard to this system of education, it is to be noted that in learning, writing came before reading. Except for getting up the multiplication table, the instruction was individual, monitors being usually chosen from among the more advanced scholars to help those at a more elementary stage of instruction. The Rev. Dr. Bell got his idea of the monitorial system—called by him the “Madras System”—from what he had seen of it in the indigenous schools of Madras.

Its extent.

This system of education was fairly widespread in India at the time control over education generally passed into the hands of the British Government. In Madras, it was estimated that rather less than one-sixth of the boys of school-going age received education of some sort.

In Bombay, the number of boys under instruction was put down at about one in eight. In Bengal, on the average, about 10 per cent of all the children of school-going age were under instruction. Widespread as it was, this system of education did not, as Mr. Keay remarks, "include a very large proportion even of the male population, and among females of course it hardly existed at all." The system, however, was an old and well established one, going back to a period long anterior to Manu. There is some evidence to believe that it existed for some centuries prior to Asōka, the Buddhist Emperor. His rock and pillar edicts presume a knowledge of the vernaculars on the part of the people. Of course, there is nothing to indicate the actual extent of literacy prevalent during Asōka's time. It is possible, however, that this system, which we find closely connected with the village life of India, has been so connected from time out of memory. Whether the teacher was always and everywhere one of the Village Twelve, it is difficult to determine, the more so because many of these schools have come into being in places other than villages proper. Mr. Keay, who discusses this subject at some length, thinks that these indigenous primary schools cannot, taken as a whole, be spoken of "as being the relic of an ancient village system." Dr. Matthai holds the opposite view. Mr. Keay's main contention is that these schools have arisen in a variety of ways, not all of them connected with the village. Schools arising out of the village system were copied out or imitated by others to suit their own needs. The schools started by Zamindars, rich traders or others might have owed their origin to this fact. There is, besides, evidence to believe that village life was more corporate in ancient times than it has been during the past century or so, and in certain villages the poet or the school-master was actually one of the Village Twelve. This was so in Mysore State. In other villages,

though the teacher was not of the Twelve, he still had a place in the life of the village. This was especially the case in most of the larger villages, as it is to this day. Education was felt to be a necessity in such places, and it was provided for as a matter of course. But it was limited to the extent defined above. It was utilitarian in character, and had a real relation with the life outside the school. Though it might have fallen short, judged from modern standards, it was in some respects fully in accordance with modern theory. In the Montessori system, we find it advocated that writing should be taught before reading, and that, in teaching to write, the child should first be made constantly to run its fingers over ground or on sandpaper letters in order to fix the forms in the muscular memory. Both these ideas, as Mr. Keay well points out, were long ago current in Indian schools. Though unconnected with the Brāhmanic schools of learning, they probably derived these and other ideas of teaching and their methods from these schools, but as the Brāhmanic schools tended more and more to draw away from the daily concerns of life, "they supplied a popular want which would not otherwise have been met." Through long centuries they have helped "to give to India some elements of a popular education, and to prepare for that time when it should be possible for education to become more widespread among the people."

The Muham-
madan
System; its
origin,
growth and
development.

On the Muhammadan system of education, which is closely connected with the Muhammadan religion, a great deal of valuable light has been thrown by Mr. N. Law in his well-known work *Promotion of Learning in India during Muhammadan Rule*. Mr. Law's work must be consulted by the interested reader. What follows is largely based on it and on Mr. Keay's work previously referred to. The Muhammadans first appeared in India in the Eighth Century A.D., but it was not until

the 11th century that they endeavoured to establish themselves in India. The many invasions of Muhammad of Ghazni (1000-1026 A.D.) led to the permanent settlement of Muhammadans in India, and to the establishment of mosques in it. As in other Muhammadan countries, the mosque, especially in towns, was a centre of instruction and of literary activity. Muhammadan educational institutions are distinguished as *maktabs* or *madrasahs*. The *maktab* is a primary school attached to a mosque, the chief business of which is to instruct boys in those portions of the *Koran* which a Muhammadan is expected to know by heart in order to perform his daily devotions and other religious duties. Sometimes, instruction in reading, writing and simple arithmetic is also included in the curriculum. The *madrasah* is a school or college of higher learning. Among the first Muhammadan Kings to encourage education was Muhammad Ghori, who established himself at Delhi in 1192 A.D. He established mosques and colleges and gave education to the more promising of his own slaves. Kutb-ud-din was one of those slaves, and he was also a promoter of learning. He built numerous mosques at which instruction was also given. Though Altamash, Kutb-ud-din's successor, was not overactive in regard to education, his daughter Raziya proved a patron of learning. Nasir-ud-din and Balban both encouraged learning. In the Khilji dynasty, Jalal-ud-din (close of 13th century) proved a man of great literary taste. Delhi was now a great seat of learning. Under the Tughlak Kings (1325-1413), education made good progress. During Firoz Tughlakh's reign, Delhi became famous as a centre of learning. Scholarship was encouraged by gifts and pensions. The art of copying the *Koran* was actively patronized by him. He repaired schools and alienated revenue in their favour. According to Ferishta, he founded as many as thirty colleges with mosques attached. In the College

he founded at his Capital, the teachers and scholars lived together in the institution, stipends and scholarships being granted for their support. Down in the South, in the Bāhmani Kingdom, Muhammad Gawan, Minister of Muhammad Shāh (1463-1482), built at Bidar a fine library of three thousand volumes. Some of the Bāhmani Kings provided for the education of orphans and the maintenance of their teachers. In the other Muhammadan Kingdoms of the time (15th century), education was actively encouraged. Jaunpur was one of the most famous seats of learning during this century. It is, however, a question if, in the rural areas, there was during this period the same attention paid to education as in the Cities.

Among the Moghul Emperors (1526-1707), education received considerable attention. Humayun, the son of Bābar, was an accomplished scholar and a great patron of learned men. He built a College at Delhi. Akbar (1556-1605) not only encouraged learning but was active in reforming education. Abul Fazal bears eloquent testimony to this fact. Akbar was also fond of books. He built up a library, and almost every day he had books from it read to him. He built many colleges and caused translations to be made of the more valuable Sanskrit works into Persian. Colleges were also erected during his time by private persons. Akbar made it possible for Hindus to learn at the *madrasahs*. As a reformer of the educational method of his time, he deserves high praise. He recommended that, as among Hindus, writing should be taught before reading, which was not the case in the Muhammadan schools. He was also anxious that students should be made to understand everything themselves, the teachers only assisting them a little. Books on morals were to be read, while no one was "to neglect those things which the present time requires," which shows Akbar's desire to make education practical. As

Abdul Fazal adds, "these regulations shed a new light on schools and cast a bright lustre over *madrasahs*." Whether Akbar was really unable to read or write, which is hotly disputed by Mr. Law, it is clear he was a genuine friend of learning and one interested in it too deeply to be mistaken for an uneducated man. Jehāngir, his son, was not only learned but also encouraged learning. He wrote his own memoirs and illustrated them with the aid of artists. He built new Colleges, repaired old ones, and made Agra a great centre of learning. Among the laws he enacted was one under which the property of those who died leaving no heirs lapsed to the Crown and was used for the repairing of Colleges, Monasteries and other religious institutions. Shāh Jahān founded a College at Delhi, but is more famous for the great impetus he gave to the architectural art. One of his sons, Dārā Shukoh, was a well-read scholar, and is remembered as a translator of many Sanskrit works into Persian, including the *Upanishads*. Another was Aurangzīb, who, as a strict Muhammadan, gave great encouragement to Muhammadan education. He founded a large number of schools and colleges, repaired mosques, and gave lands, pensions and allowances to learned men and professors, and stipends to scholars according to their abilities and qualifications. He extended his educational activities to distant provinces like Gujarat, to which he sent teachers. Their reports on the public examinations they conducted were sent to him for his information. The royal example was copied by private persons who opened schools. Aurangzīb added to the Imperial Library, and copied the *Koran* with his own hand and sold copies of it to the public to meet his own personal wants. He had exalted and quite modern notions on education, and the sort of training required in the case of royal youths. His scathing criticism of his old teacher, who came to see him on his ascending the throne, so

picturesquely reported by the French traveller Bernier, shows that he was by no means the crude bigot he is ordinarily represented to be. He charges him for not filling his young mind with suitable instruction ; with the geography of surrounding countries, the history of adjoining kingdoms, their languages and their forms of government, modes of warfare, manners, religion, etc. Instead, he reiterates, he was compelled to waste ten or twelve years on learning Arabic and its grammar, "on the dry, unprofitable and never-ending task," as he puts it, "of learning words." Among other charges he prefers against his teacher is the one that he did not instruct him "on one point at least, so essential to be known by a King ; namely, on the reciprocal duties between the sovereign and his subjects." A still another charge is that he did not instruct him "in the art of war, how to besiege a town, or draw up an army in battle array." He is so disgusted with him, he abjures to him : "Go. Withdraw to thy village. Henceforth let no person know either who thou art, or what is become of thee." Aurangzib was apparently sorely tired by the time wasted on getting up mere words ; on the want of correlation between the work in school and the life outside of it ; and the utter lack of a broad humanism in which history, geography and the languages of the surrounding nations would have a large place. He was eminently modern in his outlook, but his pre-occupation of military conquest was great and he never gave himself time or opportunity to give practical effect to his educational ideals, which should have sounded strange to his old teacher Mullah Shāh.

In Mysore during the Usurpation period.

In Mysore, during the period of Muhammadan ascendancy (1761-1799), Muhammadan education received considerable attention, especially at the hands of Tipu Sultān. Haidar Ali could not write his own name.

But he was a shrewd and capable man with an excellent memory. Schawartz, the Missionary ambassador from Madras, who saw him in Court in 1769, speaks highly of the quickness with which he conducted public business. "He orders one man to write a letter and another to read it to him. If the writer has in the least deviated from his orders, his head pays for it." He put his sons under Mullahs of reputation for needful training. It is said that Tipu's teacher was never questioned by Haidar as to the progress made by the boy for many years, at the end of which period, he one day conducted a public examination of Tipu. This showed that the boy had not obtained the training required for a soldier's son; instead he had had everything that would be requisite to turn him into a good Moulvie. Haidar's displeasure knew no bounds and he exclaimed, much in the strain of Aurangzib, that his boy had not been taught the things that would make him a great and good ruler. He had not been taught, he thundered forth, the modes of warfare he should know, the manner of conquering countries or conducting diplomacy with the surrounding nations, or even the duties of kingship. Instead, Haidar protested, everything requisite for converting him into a religious zealot had been done and his mind filled with notions and fancies which had made him hate everything not connected with Islam. Everything indeed had been done, concluded Haidar in his anger, to ruin his family and his kingdom and nothing to advance either. And Haidar proved a true prophet in uttering this condemnation of learning imparted to his son. Tipu, we are told by Kirmāni, his historian, "built a *musjid* (mosque) in every town, and appointed a Muezzin, a Moula and a Kāzi to each, and promoted the education and learning of the Mussalmans to the utmost of his power. He himself also spent his time in prayer, reading the *Koran* and counting the beads of his rosary." Kirmāni

comments rather bitterly on the disastrous effects of Tipu's preference to his religious devotions and to those who were not trained to the positions to which they were appointed. "The old Khans and faithful servants of the State were now cast down from confidence and power, and low men, and men without abilities were raised to high offices and dignities; men of rank, also, who had always been employed in the highest duties and services, were reduced to the lowest and humblest offices, for this reason, that it was the wish of the Sultan that every Mussalman should derive benefit, or reap all advantages from his kindness alone, in order that the lower classes of people should not despair of obtaining rank and office. From this cause, however, it was that disorder and disaffection forced their way into the very foundations of the State, and at once the nobles and Khans, being alarmed and suspicious, became the instigators of treachery and rebellion." A stronger indication than this we do not read of in the writings of the annalists of the time of the sort of training Tipu had himself received to befit him for his later position in life or he himself expected from those he appointed to offices of trust and responsibility requiring certain previous training. Though not lacking in a knowledge of Persian (see Vol. II, Chapter IX), Tipu proved a mere pedant and an innovator and not a true reformer. Tipu's aversion to those who did not belong to his own religion—Kirmāni says that "he did not consider any but the people of Islam his friends"—was not intelligible even to his own contemporaries, not excluding his own officers, civil and military. "Therefore on all accounts," Kirmāni adds, "his chief object was to promote and provide for them (Mussalmans). He accordingly selected a number of Mussalmans who could scarcely read and write and appointed them Mirzas of the treasury departments and placed one over each of

the other accountants, to the end that the accounts might be submitted by them to him in the Persian language." This ended in a short time in administrative slackness, as the system was extended to the whole kingdom, and eventually led to its break-up and destruction. The story of the effects of the unsound education received by Tipu seems too pathetic for words and there is nothing in the dignified castigation that Haidar administered to Tipu's Mullah Saheb to induce disbelief or doubt in it.

Female education among the Muhammadans was, as among Hindus, carried on under certain restrictions. Seclusion, however, did not always prove a bar to girls attending schools. Several of the nobility provided for the careful training of their daughters and many royal ladies are known to have been educated during the Mogul times. The Mysore annalists give us no precise information on this point, but there is no reason to doubt that some at least of the ladies of the higher classes were as usual educated in Persian and Arabic.

Women's
Education.

The education imparted in the *Madrassahs* cannot have been uniform. Its content appears to have varied from place to place and depended to a certain extent on the subjects chosen by the pupils themselves. Until recently, the ordinary course included grammar, logic and law; external observances and fundamental doctrines of Islam; astronomy, based on translations of Ptolemy; finally metaphysics. The criticisms of Aurangzib show that in his time the teaching had become formal and scholastic, with a strong emphasis on grammar, and ending with the dry discussion of abstract, metaphysical trivialities. All the same, "we shall not be far wrong if we say," following Mr. Keay, "that the state of Muhammadan learning in India was very much the same as that of learning in Europe before the introduction of printing."

Nature of
education
imparted by
Madrassahs.

History of Education in Mysore.

Early
History.

Highly as learning was always esteemed, education never seemed to have been regarded as a duty of the State under former Indian Rulers. It was left to the voluntary principle and was, as we have seen, mostly in the hands of religious leaders and priests. At the same time, we find that, in the primitive corporation of the "Village Twelve," a poet who was also a school-master was sometimes provided instead of a goldsmith. Endowments were often given for promoting learning as a religious duty.

Education
in the
Restoration
period.

Maharaja Krishnaraja Wodeyar III had established in 1833 at his own cost a free English School at Mysore and the Government were also aiding Missionary bodies in establishing schools. Besides this, there were two schools at Bangalore of a special character supported by Government. The State expenditure on education in 1855 was Rs. 16,500 a year.

Early
European
Missionary
Work.

Education on modern lines was first introduced by European Missionaries. Between 1840 and 1854, the Wesleyan Mission established schools at some of the District Headquarters with the aid of Government, the principal one being its Institution at Bangalore founded in 1851.

The Halifax
Despatch,
1854.

Systematic State activity in India in the field of education began with the famous Halifax Despatch of 1854. In that Despatch, the Directors of the East India Company sketched a plan of work on which the present structure of Indian Education is mainly based. "It is one of our most sacred duties," they said, "to be the means, as far as in us lies, of conferring upon the natives of India those vast moral and material blessings which flow from the general diffusion of knowledge, and which in India may, under Providence, derive from her

connection with England." They stated that the best education that could be given was education on Western lines and in the knowledge belonging to the civilization of the West; and made full provision in their scheme, for departments of education in the provinces; for the inspectorate; for reports; for professorships; for Universities and degrees to be conferred by them; for technical education, women's education, mass education; and discussed the question of fees, and aid of private effort and scholarships. While English was to be the language of instruction in the highest institutions, they recognised the importance of the vernacular languages for placing knowledge within reach of the far larger classes who were ignorant of or imperfectly acquainted with English. "At the same time and as the importance of the vernacular languages becomes more appreciated, the vernacular literature of India will be gradually enriched by the translations of European books, or by the original compositions of men whose minds have been imbued with the spirit of European advancement, so that European knowledge may gradually be placed in this manner within the reach of all classes of the people."

At the time the Directors of the East India Company sent this Despatch, the State of Mysore had been under the direct rule of the British Government for more than twenty years, and it so remained, as it proved, for twenty-seven years thereafter. The Commission that then administered the country was asked to bring into force in the State as far as they were applicable the measures for educational advancement outlined in the Directors' Despatch. As in the rest of India, so also in the State, there was then no organised "system" of education. Maharaja Sri Krishnaraja Wodeyar III of honoured memory had established at his own cost an English School at Mysore; and the Government also

Education
under the
British
Commission.

were aiding Missionary bodies in establishing schools as already mentioned ; but a system of education there did not exist. Indeed, if we might infer from words written a little later, the Government seems to have thought of the spread of education as a source of danger rather than otherwise. "On the whole," wrote Sir Mark Cubbon, the Chief Commissioner, of the educational work of the State previous to 1857—these words, it has to be remarked, were written at the time of the Mutiny—"it must be admitted that the administration of Mysore makes no particular show under the head of education. In an abstract point of view this is to be regretted, but subject nations are not kept in order and good humour on abstract principles and it has long been the opinion of some, and is rapidly becoming the opinion of many, that the efforts which have been made by Government to extend the blessings of education by tests and examinations to secure the services of enlightened men even in the lowest posts are not calculated to be so fully appreciated as they ought, by any class of the community."

The Devereux
Scheme.

When the provisions of the Despatch of 1854 had to be applied to Mysore, the Hon. Mr. Devereux, Judicial Commissioner, drew up a scheme of education for Mysore and Coorg jointly. He provided for an establishment of officers by which the scheme was to be worked ; there were to be a Director of Public Instruction, two Inspectors, four Deputy Inspectors and twenty Sub-Deputy Inspectors ; a Sub-Deputy Inspector having on an average four taluks and the higher officers in proportion. Provision was made in the scheme about the number of schools to be established and the funds to be made available, etc.

Progress till
1865.

The scheme drawn up by Mr. Devereux was sanctioned by the Government of India with some slight modifications.

The Indian educational institution of the Wesleyan Mission was at first aided with a large grant as filling the place of a central institution, but soon after the scheme was sanctioned, it ceased to be the central institution and, in 1858, the Government established a High School in Bangalore, affiliated to the Madras University. The Mission Schools at Tumkur, Shimoga and Hassan and the Maharaja's School at Mysore were taken under Government management to serve as divisional schools. In 1861, a Normal School was established at Bangalore and the next year saw the opening of an Engineering School. As for Taluk Schools, the progress under the policy of waiting till the people asked for schools was not particularly encouraging. "Whether in consequence of the state of public affairs," wrote Sir Mark Cubbon in 1857, "or from any other cause or causes, no desire has been expressed for the aid of Government in the establishment of any school in any portion of the Mysore country, except on the part of two schools in the station of Bangalore. It has not been thought advisable under the circumstances to set up schools for the establishment of which no desire has been expressed." Matters, however, improved shortly, for, two years thereafter in 1859-60, there were fifteen applications and, at the end of 1864-65, there were eighteen Kannada Government Schools and thirty schools assisted by grant-in-aid. These schools and the staff that was appointed for teaching, inspection and direction, cost a sum nearing on a lakh and a quarter—the amount that the Government of India had sanctioned for annual expenditure on education in the State.

The year 1868 was a year of importance in the history of education in Mysore. In that year, Government sanctioned a scheme of far reaching effects proposed by Mr. Rice—the scheme for the establishment of Hobli Schools to bring education within reach of the mass of

The Hobli
School
Scheme.

people. Under the provisions of that scheme, a school was to be sanctioned for every hobli where the people desired to have a school and in earnest of their desire agreed to provide a school-house. The masters were to be the men who had been in charge of the indigenous schools, but to be employed after they had received training in the Normal School. They were to receive under training Rs. 5 a month and afterwards an appointment on Rs. 7 a month. The cost was to be met from a cess levied on the land revenue, and education in the schools was to be free. Committees were formed from among the local people to supervise the schools.

Progress up
to 1873.

The situation at the end of 1871-72 was very satisfactory. All the hoblis had schools except 39; each taluk had a superior vernacular school; there were eleven District Schools teaching up to the Matriculation standard; and five High Schools teaching up to the B.A. standard. One of the last and two of the District Schools belonged to the Civil and Military Station. One hundred and forty-nine students attended the University examinations—122 appeared for the Matriculation examination, 55 passing; 13 for the First Examination in Arts, 3 passing; and 14 for the B.A. degree examination, 7 passing. The grant-in-aid schools showed an increase of 14 in one year, being 90; the total number of institutions was 693 and of scholars 24,201. The total expenditure on education during the year was Rs. 3,27,621—more than double the amount that was provided for in Mr. Devereux's scheme. Summing up the achievement of the Department, the Director of Public Instruction in the report for the following year wrote as follows:—"On comparing the progress of education since this Department was established with what has been done in other parts of India, it will, I think, be admitted that Mysore has not been behind hand in contributing to the general improvement

throughout the Empire, and that, while, in the higher cultivation of English, she has attained an honourable position, the promotion of instruction in the vernaculars has received particular notice and attention." Much indeed had been achieved, but the larger part of the way had yet to be gone. Taking all the institutions together, the percentage at school was 1 in 99 of the population.

The history of education from this period to the year of the Rendition is a record of steady progress. The Bangalore High School was called the Central College from 1875 and affiliated to the Madras University as a first grade college under the new affiliation rules. The Raja's School at Mysore and the Shimoga District School were made "High Schools" teaching up to the F.A. standard, thus giving an F.A. standard school to each of the other two divisions. There were, besides, four schools teaching for the University Entrance standard. A School of Engineering and Natural Science, affiliated to the University and preparing candidates for its degrees, was established in 1875, but it was reduced to a lower grade in 1880, as the precarious needs of the Government rendered its continuance as a College unnecessary. Progress was somewhat checked by the famine of 1877. It did not, however, impair the work of Government schools, but led to the abolition of nearly all aided schools. Retrenchments of expenditure consequent on the famine rendered also the abolition of the Normal Schools necessary.

Progress up
to 1881.

The state of education at the time of the Rendition may be seen from the following tables:—

Position at
the Rendition.

Schools and Scholars.

	Government	Aided	Unaided	Total
Number of Schools ...	899	188	1,000	2,087
Number of Scholars...	33,287	9,370	15,000	57,657

Classified according to grade, the public schools numbered as below :—

	Schools	Scholars
University grade	4	132
Secondary grade	166	3,084
Primary grade	907	38,296
Special	10	1,145

The total expenditure was Rs. 3,91,028, of which only Rs. 1,58,423 were met from State Revenues, the remainder or Rs. 2,32,605 being defrayed, Rs. 1,40,976 from Local and Municipal Funds, Rs. 57,250 from school fees and the rest from private sources.

The following figures indicate the results of the various examinations :—

<i>Examinations.</i>	<i>Successful Candidates.</i>	<i>Examinations.</i>	<i>Successful Candidates.</i>
B. A. ...	6	Matriculation ...	126
F. A. ...	16	Middle School ...	186

Later History of education : Sir K. Seshadri Iyer's policy.

On the restoration of the State to the Ruling family, the policy of the Commission in the matter of education was continued. There was a desire in the earlier years to hand over Vernacular Primary education to Local Boards and Village Committees. "The Hobli Schools," said Sir K. Seshadri Iyer in 1883, "have certainly proved not an adequate medium for the wide spread of elementary education which alone can give them success and I have therefore provided that the Local Boards, assisted by Village Boards, where practicable, will take entire charge of these schools, manage them with the definite funds that will be placed at their disposal, appointing and dismissing the masters at their own discretion, the Government interference being limited

purely to the prescribing of the proper standard of education in them and providing the Board with a good and competent staff of Inspectors." While this was the goal to be kept in view so far as primary education was concerned, the policy of Government as to various grades and kinds of instruction was described in 1886 by the same great statesman in these words:—"The subject is one which the Government regard as of the foremost importance. Their policy may be briefly summed up as aiming at the following ends:—

"To maintain unimpaired and in thorough efficiency all the means of elementary and secondary education and to bring them within the reach of all classes both by direct agency and by assisting private effort. To promote a scholarly study of the local vernacular, and of our ancient classical languages, to elevate and extend female education, and to conduct it on a system strictly national so as to enlist popular sympathy in its progress, to encourage higher education and to train young men for the professions of Medicine, Engineering, etc."

Steps were taken in the immediately succeeding year to work out as far as possible the programme of education on the lines indicated above. To encourage the study of the Kannada language and to give it an importance, a local examination in Kannada was instituted. The Karnataka Bhashojjivini Sabha was established in 1886 with a Kannada College attached, the Sanskrit School at Bangalore was made a College and the Maharaja's Sanskrit College received further development by the provision there of facilities for the study of higher branches of Sanskrit learning and the institution of appropriate examinations. The pay of the educational services was improved and attempts were made to appoint competent teachers to the High Schools and Colleges; scholarships were instituted for students who proceeded

How the
policy was
carried out.

to colleges outside the country for technical education; and the education of women received a great impetus by the establishment of a Maharani's girls' school at Mysore with due deference to caste prejudices and by the Government adopting a forward policy, free from any fear of being misunderstood.

Education
during
1890-1895.

During the five years from 1890 to 1895, there was progress in all directions. Collegiate education was developed by raising the Maharaja's College, Mysore, from the second to the first grade, by completing the Chemical Laboratory of the Central College and appointing additional Professors and assistant masters in both the Colleges and by grading the higher educational service. In the field of secondary education, the entire cost of Taluk English Schools was transferred to State Funds. Students' Homes were established in Mysore, Chitaldrug and Kolar. All Colleges and High Schools were provided with libraries. Normal Schools were opened at Mysore, Shimoga and Kolar for the first time after their abolition after the famine of 1877. For the purpose of still further encouraging female education, Her Highness the Maharani's Girls' School was taken over for management by the Government and placed under the supervision of a Committee. An Oriental Library was established at Mysore for the collection of manuscripts in Sanskrit and Kannada and of literature on these languages, and a Text-Book Committee was appointed. Industrial Schools were opened at Hassan and Mysore and special encouragement was given to Technical education. The education of Muhammadan boys was encouraged by the award of scholarships as also the education of the sons of Pālegārs. Work in the field of the education of the depressed classes was begun by Government by the establishment of schools in various places.

The progress in the next four years can well be summed up in the words of the Administration Report for 1895-1899 :—" An Inspector-General was appointed "— the ' Director ' of the earlier days was replaced by the ' Secretary ' in 1881 and this officer from 1895 combined in himself the offices of the Secretary (to Government in the Education Department) and the Inspector-General..... The percentage of boys and girls to the male and female population of school-going age was respectively 24·52 and 3·78 in the year 1898-1899. A variety of useful arts, such as drawing, modelling carpentry, weaving, wood-carving, masonry, rattan work, blacksmith's work, book-binding, manufacture of roofing and flooring tiles and aluminium vessels, etc., was taught in the Industrial School at Mysore and other Technical Institutions in the State." The outbreak of plague in 1898 affected education badly, but the effect was only temporary and in 1900 the country had almost recovered from the depressing effects. The total expenditure on education in 1900-1901 was nearly 11 lakhs of rupees. In 1880-81, it was slightly less than 4 lakhs; in 1890-91, slightly more than 6 lakhs; and in 1900-01, it was more than three times the amount for 1880-81.

Education
during
1895-1900.

Technical education also received considerable attention during the time of Sir P. N. Krishnamurti, who outlined a scheme in 1902 to which effect was given in the following year. Under the scheme then sanctioned, an Engineering School was established at Mysore, the existing Industrial School was re-organised and more Industrial Schools were established in various places. Scholarships were also instituted from State Funds to students who wished to study technical subjects outside Mysore.

Encourage-
ment of
Technical
Education.

The machinery of instruction up to 1910-11 was practically the same as that which existed at the end of

Changes
in the
machinery
instruction.

1903-04 as revised by the then Dewan Sir P. N. Krishna Murthi. The important changes and developments effected were, however, the raising of the Maharani's Girls' High School to a College of a second grade in 1902-03 and the conversion of the Shimoga College into a High School in 1905. The noticeable developments in this period were the introduction, in 1907, of manual training into the curriculum of Secondary Schools so as to correct the too "literary" tendency of the matriculation courses, so often complained of and the introduction, in 1908, of religious and moral instruction into the schools and colleges in the State; and the decision to locate the Indian Institute of Science in Bangalore in accordance with arrangements agreed to by the Mysore Government and the Government of India. At the same time, an expert was obtained from America to introduce manual training into secondary schools and to train teachers for the purpose and an expert in Kindergarten methods of instruction was also obtained from England to train mistresses and masters in the State schools and to organise Kindergarten methods in the State. The Madras University introduced New Regulations in 1907 and the High Schools and Colleges in the State were reorganised to meet the new requirements.

Progress
during
1911-1916.

A general account of the progress of education in the State in the years 1911-16 may well begin with reference to the Mysore Economic Conference. As a deliberative body composed of officials and non-officials and having education as one of the three departments of its activity, it stands for all that means progress in that field as in others—for the enlistment of popular work in the cause of education, for the co-operation of official and non-official for the furtherance of that cause, for large and liberal and up-to-date ideals regarding education and for thorough examination of all subjects of

interest concerning education. Opening the Conference for the first time on 10th June 1911, His Highness the Maharaja in words now memorable said: "Education is the sovereign remedy for all economic evils. Much has been done by my Government in recent years, by giving increased grants and otherwise, to spread knowledge and awaken the intelligence of the people. To mark our sense of its importance, we have given the subject of Education the first place in the general programme placed before you." The words are the key-note of the educational work during the subsequent years. As an immediate consequence of the importance attached to education by His Highness the Maharaja, the financial policy of Government during the ensuing years was marked by increased liberality. The increase in expenditure during the five years 1911-16 was nearly 50 per cent. Large amounts were allotted to Primary education, for the improvement of the Colleges, for technical education in the State, and foreign scholarships, and for objects of general educational value, such as Public Libraries. The people of the State could appreciate the solicitude expressed in the following words of His Highness the Maharaja to the Dewan and conveyed by him to the annual gathering of the members of the Economic Conference in 1916: "Be sure you do not stint money for education."

The period was noted for the adoption of new ideals in many important directions in educational work. By the introduction of compulsion of a modified form into the system of Primary education, a principle, the soundness of which has been recognised in all quarters but which has not always been easy to work, has been accepted in practice in the State. Of equal importance was the introduction of the Secondary School Leaving Certificate Scheme; the reform was long considered necessary and

Adoption
of new
ideals.

has been adopted in other parts of India. It was adopted in the State in 1913. In consonance with the most advanced ideas with regard to higher education was the establishment of the University, the most important measure of a progressive character adopted during the period.

The main
events of the
period.

The main events of the period may be summarised as follows :—

The educational service was completely re-organised by the revision of the scales of pay and prospects of the members of various classes. The University was established at the close of the period. Honours courses were introduced in the first grade colleges and improvements made in equipment and accommodation so as to make them more efficient. Secondary education in English was placed on a better basis by the institution of the Secondary School Leaving Certificate Scheme. New Vernacular High Schools were opened in five places for men and in two places for women. The Elementary Education Regulation was passed for the first time introducing compulsion in Education in the State. A scheme of practical education in Elementary Schools was approved by Government and partly brought into force. A programme of expansion was begun so that at the end of the quinquennium there were more than double the number of schools than there were at the beginning. A Mechanical Engineering School was opened at Bangalore and the Chamarajendra Technical Institute was formed at Mysore by amalgamating the old Engineering and Industrial Schools and adding some new Departments of instruction. The rules for the grant of scholarships for study in foreign countries were revised, the chief being the institution in addition to the usual scholarships of "loan scholarships," the amount of which would be recovered from the scholars on their return after completing their studies. Government Commercial Schools were opened in Bangalore and Mysore and Technical Examinations of Elementary and Advanced grades were instituted. The Normal School at Mysore was raised to the status of a Training College and Normal Schools were opened in more places

and classes were opened in the Mysore School even before it became a College for training English masters. Agricultural Education made a beginning in the period, the Agricultural School at Hebbal opening for work in July 1913. The Maharani's College was re-organised and a Hostel opened for students of the advanced classes of the College. Provision was made for advanced education being given in more schools and in other centres besides Mysore. The curriculum of studies in Girls' Schools was revised so as to suit the needs of women. The inspectorate in respect of Muhammadan Education was strengthened. A Panchama Boarding School was established at Mysore to serve as a central institution for the Panchamas in the State.

The subsequent period is an important one in the History of Education in the State. During this period, development was attempted in many directions with varying results. One of the outstanding features of the period having far reaching consequence for the future of education of the State was the issue of a comprehensive resolution by the Government (No. 1180-250 Edn. 498-20-1, dated 25th May 1921) dealing with the numerous problems presented by the existing condition of education and laying down the lines of its future development. Most of the important measures of the past years aimed at creating a growing demand for education and securing an increase in the number of schools and scholars. These objects have been fulfilled in a large measure and it was felt that for a long time to come attention would have to be devoted mainly to effecting improvements in the organisation, increasing its efficiency and adopting measures towards the qualitative improvement of education. The most important measures of reform contemplated in the above resolution relate to—

Progress
since 1917.

(1) the gradual conversion of aided Primary Schools in villages into Government institutions provided with a more qualified and better paid staff, located in buildings of a more permanent nature and furnished with suitable equipment ;

(2) the establishment of Middle Schools of a uniform bilingual type with an improved curriculum providing also for practical instruction ;

(3) the introduction of Polytechnic courses in the High Schools ;

(4) the re-organisation of Technical Education by the establishment of Elementary Industrial Schools in the Taluk Head-quarters and of Higher Industrial Schools at District Head-quarters, with an advanced training in the Chamara-jendra Technical Institute ;

(5) complete revision and extension of the Training Courses and adequate arrangements for the training of a sufficient number of teachers ;

(6) improvement in the pay and prospects (as well as in the qualifications) of all ranks in the services ; and

(7) various other measures for introducing co-ordination between the several parts of the entire educational organisation.

The programme set forth above is one of great magnitude involving large additional expenditure. It is being gradually given effect to as funds become available. The action taken and the progress achieved so far in giving effect to the various items in the programme will be found briefly mentioned in the respective sections on the subject.

Periodical
reviews.

The progress of education in the State is being reviewed by Government every year with a view to lay down the general principles that guide educational advancement in the future. In addition to the above, the first quinquennial review of progress of education in the State was issued in accordance with instructions laid down in Government Order No. 2352-6—Edn. 19-16-3, dated 21st September 1916. It deals with the progress made in the five years from 1st July 1911 to 30th June 1916, besides giving a general history of development of education during the earlier period. A second review of the kind is now under preparation, and will deal with the

progress of education during the six years from 1st July 1916 to 30th June 1922.

SECTION 1--MYSORE UNIVERSITY.

The University of Mysore is the first University to be Origin. founded in the Native States of India. For over twenty-five years, the two State Colleges were affiliated to the Madras University. The Mysore State has an area of some 30,000 square miles and a population of about six millions, and it was felt that the time had come to make certain changes to adapt the educational system to the actual needs of the people of Mysore. A special committee was appointed in 1915-16 to draw up a scheme for a University for the State in consultation with the educational experts of the Government of India and officials of the Mysore State. A bill to establish and incorporate a University was introduced into the Mysore Legislative Council in June 1916. It was unanimously passed and received the sanction of His Highness the Maharaja in July 1916.

His Highness the Maharaja is the Chancellor and His Constitution. Highness the Yuvaraja, the Pro-Chancellor. A Vice-Chancellor and a Council consisting of not less than nine and not more than 15 members including the Vice-Chancellor of the University have been appointed to control the affairs of the University. The Senate as reconstituted in July 1925 consists of Fellows partly elected and partly nominated. Boards of studies have been appointed by the University Council and the Faculties have been constituted by the Senate.

The University first comprised the Maharaja's College at Mysore (the Head-quarters of the University) and the Central College at Bangalore. At present, there are five Constituent Colleges—the Maharaja's College and the Maharani's Women's College for Arts at Mysore; the

Central College for Science, the Engineering College and the Medical College at Bangalore.

Courses.

The prevailing system of the Madras University is a four years' course with an Intermediate Examination after the second year. The Mysore University provides for a three years' continuous course, admission to which is confined to those who pass an Entrance Examination after studying for a year in Collegiate High Schools after they have successfully completed the High School course. These Collegiate High Schools are subject to recognition by the University, which exercises also the power of periodical inspection. They are suitably staffed and are under the supervision of the University Council.

The Engineering Course is one of four years and the Commerce Course is one of three years. These courses were framed during the year 1916-17. The third year Commerce class and the specialised classes of the third year Civil and Mechanical Engineering were opened during 1919-20.

The B.E. Degree Examination was held for the first time in 1920-21.

The subjects of instruction and examination, which cover a continuous course of three years for the Degree of B.A., come under the heads of (1) Arts and (2) Sciences. English and the second language, *viz.*, either a vernacular—Kannada, Telugu, Tamil and Hindustani—or Sanskrit, Persian or French are compulsory. Two optional subjects are also compulsory, and in Arts, which are located in Mysore, these may be chosen from History, Political Science, Economics, two groups in Philosophy and Sanskrit or Persian. In the Sciences which are taught in Bangalore, either Mathematics, Physics and Chemistry, or Zoology, Geology and Botany may be chosen in the first year, and any two of the subjects studied in the first year may be taken in second and third years. There

is also a special course for the B.Sc. Degree, which requires a small amount of English and a correspondingly larger amount of Science than is necessary for the pass course.

Steps are being taken to provide for courses of studies in Law, Teaching, Agriculture and Electrical Engineering at no distant date. It is also in contemplation to evolve a higher standard of post-graduate training and research work in Science. A scheme of Extension lectures is in working and the Publication Bureau has also been active.

The second year Commerce class, the third year class in Philosophy group I and the second year in the College of Engineering were opened during the year 1918-19. Arrangements were made for imparting instruction to graduates studying for the M.A. Degree examination in English Language and Literature, History, Economics and Political Science, Philosophy, and Sanskrit. The M.A. and B.Com. Degree examinations were held for the first time in the year 1919-20.

In the latter part of the year 1923-24, the Government sanctioned the recommendation of the Senate for the establishment of a Faculty of Medicine and the opening of a Medical College at Bangalore from the 1st July 1924.

At Mysore, the following buildings have been newly constructed. Two lecture theatres added to the Maharaja's College, the adaptation of the Jubilee building for the University Library, New Hostel Blocks, the Union Building, a Cricket Pavilion, a new Oriental and Sanskrit Library, Professors' Houses and a Swimming Bath. Later, Warden's quarters, a Gymnasium, a Museum and a Senate House will be erected. At Bangalore, the Central College buildings have been extended and additional Hostel accommodation has been

Buildings.

provided. A Union Building has also been constructed at that centre, and it is in contemplation to construct some houses for Professors in the vicinity of the site of the Central College.

Number of
Students.

The total strength of the three Colleges and the College classes of the Maharani's College in 1923-24 was 461.

Recognition
of Examina-
tions and
Degrees.

Mutuality in regard to the recognition of examinations and degrees of other Universities by the Mysore University and of the Mysore University by other Universities, Indian and British, has been established. Among other Universities, the following recognize the examinations and degrees of the Mysore University :—

Bombay,	Dacca,
Madras,	Aligarh Muslim Univer-
Punjab,	sity,
Hindu University,	London,
Lucknow,	Oxford and Cambridge.

Finance.

The University is State-supported except for fees and endowments. The following statement furnishes information regarding receipts and expenditure during the year 1923-24.

RECEIPTS.

Minor Heads	1923-24 (Provi- sional)	1922-23	1921-22	1920-21
1	2	3	4	5
1. State Grant	6,01,800	4,50,000	5,50,000	7,10,830
2. Fees from Colleges	45,266	43,681	31,742	37,812
3. Examination Fees	35,551	35,429	28,762	27,442
4. Contribution from private bodies.
5. Interest on Endowments.	11,470	11,093	8,015	6,379
6. Fees for Registration of Graduates.	168	138	637	423
7. Sale proceeds of publica- tions.	2,183	2,886	2,734	2,096
8. Miscellaneous Receipts	1,183	2,541	2,405	656
Rents on Buildings	3,349	4,875	3,930	...
DEBT HEADS.				
Endowments	9,378	1,40,566	9,400	2,000
Advances	15,492	30,826	2,484	1,787
Deposits	4,938	8,264	6,787	1,892
Total	7,30,773	7,29,694	6,46,846	7,91,517
Minor Heads	1919-20	1918-19	1917-18	1916-17
	6	7	8	9
1. State Grant	7,10,807	7,10,710	5,11,303	8,06,000
2. Fees from Colleges	33,372	23,298	17,782	21,200
3. Examination Fees	24,671	17,370	8,898	1,800
4. Contribution from private bodies.	9,225	...
5. Interest on Endowments.	6,261	5,246	1,290	...
6. Fees for Registration of Graduates.	565	643	257	700
7. Sale proceeds of publica- tions.	2,763	694
8. Miscellaneous Receipts	648	1,279	1,524	500
Rents on Buildings
DEBT HEADS.				
Endowments	14,730	27,850
Advances	920	3,051
Deposits	850	1,427
Total	7,95,087	7,91,568	5,50,281	8,30,200

EXPENDITURE.

Minor Heads	1923-24 (Provisional)	1922-23	1921-22	1920-21
1	2	3	4	5
Direction	80,928	81,115	83,968	64,647
Colleges	4,81,412	4,57,111	4,88,540	5,18,521
Examinations	34,707	40,491	51,841	52,701
Buildings	21,155	52,699	96,537	1,59,921
LIBRARY.				
University	13,982	13,893	18,093	14,168
Oriental	26,394	26,891	26,817	23,390
Debt Heads	21,093	1,73,888	17,646	19,297
Lumpsum provision for furniture, social meetings, etc.
Refunds of revenue ...	2,891	3,856	9,430	1,689
Total ...	6,83,059	8,49,402	7,92,872	8,54,284
Minor Heads	1919-20	1918-19	1917-18	1916-17
	6	7	8	9
Direction	89,785	65,108	52,406	49,500
Colleges	4,19,105	3,61,446	2,46,546	2,04,300
Examinations	42,061	24,198	4,561	600
Buildings	1,93,520	1,74,183	2,05,565	...
LIBRARY.				
University	24,027	29,480	9,169	500
Oriental	21,436	20,541
Debt Heads	17,996	33,818
Lumpsum provision for furniture, social meetings, etc.	14,495	4,08,200
Refunds of revenue ...	1,045	1,726	217	...
Total ...	8,08,975	7,10,450	5,33,159	4,72,200

Twenty-three endowments of the aggregate value of 1,43,745 rupees were offered during three years ending 1918-19, and were accepted by the University. Endowments.

The first convocation for conferring degrees was held on the 19th of October 1918 when His Highness the Chancellor presided. Convocation.

The total number of volumes in the University Library was 4,925 at the end of the year 1918-19. University Library.

Besides the University Library, each college has its own library. The Maharaja's College has nearly 9,600 volumes, the Central College 8,817 volumes, the College of Engineering 977 volumes and the Maharani's College 1,500 volumes. College Libraries.

In the Oriental Library there were 10,566 printed books and 9,211 manuscripts during the same period. The Archæological Department was placed under the administrative control of the University by an order of Government dated 4th July 1922 and during 1923-24 an Archæological museum was opened for the benefit of Research scholars of the University consisting of coins, copper-plate grants, photographs of monuments, ancient pottery, estampages of typical inscriptions, etc. Oriental Library.

SECTION 2—DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION: CONTROLLING AGENCY.

The executive and administrative Head of the Department is the Inspector-General of Education, who deals mainly with High School Education and downwards. Owing to the heavy work devolving upon him in consequence of the wide expansion of the Department and his membership on the various committees, it was realised very early that a major portion of the work of the

The
Inspector-
General and
his Staff.

Inspector-General of Education was fully occupied in attending to the discharge of the administrative and other duties devolving on him leaving little time for consideration of the broader questions of policy and organisation. With a view to give him the necessary relief, the post of the Deputy Inspector-General of Education was created with effect from 21st August 1921 and the Head of the Department was freed from purely routine work and was enabled to formulate proposals regarding the educational policy to be pursued in future. Later on, it was found that the post of the Deputy Inspector-General of Education was unnecessary as he in practice was only a personal assistant to the Inspector-General of Education in addition to the one already existing and did not exercise independently the powers delegated to him in regard to Primary and Middle Schools and Training Institutions. Besides, as the powers delegated to him were such as could be safely vested in the Circle Inspectors, Government directed in their order of 9th November 1922, partly as a measure of retrenchment, that the post of the Deputy Inspector-General of Education be abolished and an additional Circle Inspector appointed in his place for the Malnad Districts. The appointment of the Deputy Inspector-General has accordingly been abolished, but the order appointing another Circle Inspector has not been given effect to owing to financial stringency.

In order to provide for the inspection of Industrial, Commercial and Engineering Schools and to help the Inspector-General of Education in formulating schemes of development of technical education in general, the need was felt for the appointment of a technical expert with the designation of "Technical Assistant to the Inspector-General." This appointment was abolished after the Industrial Schools and the Chamarajendra Technical Institute were transferred to the control of the Industries

and Commerce Department in pursuance of orders dated 25th May 1921 on the Education Memorandum.

The Special Officer of Compulsory Education, who was originally appointed to work up the details of the scheme and to watch its progress, is now in charge of the section of the office formed for working out detailed proposals to give effect to the orders on the Education Memorandum.

Owing to the rapid expansion of Educational institutions during the last years and to provide for effective supervision of Muhammadan and Female educational institutions, the Inspectorial staff was further augmented with the result that at the end of 1921-22 the staff consisted of:—

Two Circle Inspectors.

Eight District Inspectors.

Twenty-three Assistant Inspectors.

FEMALE EDUCATION.

One Inspectress of Girls' Schools.

Five Assistant Inspectresses.

A further reorganization of the Inspectorate was felt necessary in the year 1927 with a view to unity of control and a more effective co-ordination of work in the Districts. The development of education out of funds raised in each district by means of an Education cess rendered it necessary that all the schools in a District, of middle and primary grades, should constitute a single unit for purposes of financial and educational administration. With these objects in view, Government in their order No. D. 1042-101—Edn. 241-26-7 dated 27th July 1927 ordered a reorganisation of the Inspectorate. According to this order, the head of the Department of Education was designated Director of Public Instruction in Mysore. He is to have under him three officers of high status designated Deputy Directors of Public Instruction.

The Department as it exists now.

Two of the Deputy Directors are to be in charge of territorial divisions to be denominated the Mysore Division and the Shimoga Division with Head-quarters at Mysore and Shimoga, respectively. The Mysore division consists of the Districts of Mysore, Hassan, Tumkur and Chitaldrug, and the Shimoga Division, of the Districts of Shimoga, Kadur, Kolar and Bangalore. These Officers exercise fairly extensive powers in regard to appointment, transfer, punishments, etc., and thus relieve the Director of much of the administrative work devolving on him. They will be the immediate superiors of the District Educational Officers and will also inspect and be in administrative charge of the high schools. The third Officer of this grade will be attached to the Office of the Director and will be his responsible assistant in all technical matters. The Director will also have a Lady Assistant for specific problems connected with female education in general. The Lady Assistant is also expected to control the work of the Assistant Inspectresses and also to inspect some of the girls' schools, especially girls' middle schools and Normal Schools for Women.

Under the Deputy Directors, there are eight District Educational Officers who will be responsible for Primary and Middle School education in the District and will be in charge of Kannada and Urdu Boys' and Girls' schools. They will be required to keep in touch with high school work by conducting inspections in High Schools in whole or in part under the direction of the Deputy Directors and will devote special attention to the improvement of middle schools and their maintenance in a high state of efficiency by constant guidance and regular inspections. The District Educational Officer will be the Officer whom the Deputy Commissioners and District Boards, etc., will address on all matters relating to education in the District. Each District Educational Officer will have an office Assistant.

Each District continued to consist of ranges of which one will comprise all Urdu schools in the District. Each range will be in charge of an Assistant Inspector who will be in administrative charge of the Kannada and Urdu Primary Boys' and Girls' schools in his area but his inspections will be as a rule confined to Boys' schools. The Assistant Inspectors will be expected to inspect the middle schools but they will not be in administrative charge of such schools, which with Training Institutions will be in the direct charge of the District Educational Officers.

There would be a separate women Inspectorate for the inspection of Girls' schools and for the social and propagandist work connected with the promotion of female education generally. There will be two Inspectresses of Urdu Girls' Schools, each in charge of four Districts and four Assistant Inspectresses of Kannada Girls' Schools, each in charge of two Districts. It will be an important part of the duties of these Inspectresses to carry propaganda work to women in their homes, to arrange for Parents' and Teachers' Conferences and to create an atmosphere favourable for the spread of female education. The Assistant Inspectresses will have no administrative functions in respect of these schools and their reports of inspections will be prepared in duplicate and forwarded to the District Educational Officers concerned and to the Lady Assistant to the Director who will check and control their work generally.

Muhammadan Education.

Three District Inspectors of Education.

Four Assistant Inspectors.

Two Assistant Inspectresses.

Government had under their consideration the revision of the existing system of inspection and administration of schools by the higher inspectorial staff. The two

The Department as it now exists.

Circle Inspectors of Education with territorial jurisdiction over four Districts each had direct charge of the inspection of High Schools and Normal Schools and exercised general supervision over the inspection of Middle and Primary Schools by the District and Assistant Inspectors in their respective circles. This system was not conducive for the efficiency of inspection and administration of the educational institutions as it failed to fix the responsibility for the proper development of each grade of education on any particular officer. Each grade of education had its own peculiar problems and the concentrated attention of a specialist in each grade was necessary for a continuous study and the successful handling of those problems. Government, therefore, considered it desirable to replace the Circle Inspectors with territorial jurisdiction by specially selected officers capable of exercising concentrated supervision over Primary education and Secondary education, respectively.

With the steadily increasing expenditure on Education, the levy of the education cess and the expansion of Primary and Middle School grades of education, the work in the Head Office had considerably increased and in addition to the Personal Assistant of the grade of District Inspector, whose time was entirely occupied in attending to the routine correspondence of the Head Office, the need for the services of a senior officer with good experience of the departmental technique was increasingly felt with a view to relieve the Head of the Department of much of the administrative routine work and help him in the formulation of proposals and disposal of matters of a technical nature.

The need for an Inspector of Science education was also keenly felt as, under the revised Secondary School Leaving Certificate Scheme and in the Middle Schools under the orders on the Education Memorandum Science is a compulsory subject for all students instead

of being an optional as heretofore, both in the High School and Middle School stages.

On a consideration of all the aspects of the question, Government in their order No. E. 6687-9—Fdn. 324-23-1, dated 30th June 1924, sanctioned the appointment of the following officers in addition to the Inspector-General of Education to form the administrative and controlling organisation of the Education Department :—

1. One Inspector of Primary and Middle School Education.
2. One Inspector of Secondary Schools including District Normal Schools.
3. One Inspector of Science Education.
4. One Assistant Inspector of Education.
5. One Personal Assistant to the Inspector-General of Education.

The post of the Special Officer attached to the office of the Inspector-General of Education was at the same time abolished.

The District Inspectors are in administrative charge of schools within a revenue District and inspect all the Anglo-Vernacular and Taluk Vernacular Schools, Taluk and Village Industrial Schools and in some cases also a small number of Primary Schools. They also visit annually, for purposes of general inspection in the District, one half of such other portion as may be fixed by the Inspector-General of Education from time to time of the schools placed in the immediate charge of the Assistant Inspectors, and also inspect such of the indigenous Night Schools as have applied for annual grants under the revised Grant-in-aid Rules.

Territorial
Jurisdiction
of District
Inspectors.

The three District Inspectors of Education are in charge of units arranged as follows :—

- (1) Mysore and Tumkur Districts.
- (2) Bangalore, Kolar and Chitaldrug Districts.
- (3) Shimoga, Kadur and Hassan Districts.

They are entrusted with the Inspection work of all Anglo-Hindustani Schools, Taluk Hindustani Boys' and Girls' Schools and also visit annually, for purposes of general inspection, the number of schools placed in immediate charge of the Assistant Inspectors of Education for Hindustani Schools.

Of the twenty-three Assistant Inspectors for General Schools, two are in charge of the Bangalore and Mysore City Ranges, charged with the duty of inspection of all Kannada Primary, Middle and Anglo-Vernacular Schools in their respective cities. The remaining Assistant Inspectors are in charge of Ranges each consisting of Taluks ranging from two to four and control and inspect all Vernacular Village-Elementary Schools, including those maintaining Lower Secondary classes and salary grant schools. The Assistant Inspectors of Hindustani Schools, who are in charge of either of a District or a group of Districts, control and inspect all Village-Elementary Hindustani Schools including aided schools.

Inspection of
Girls' Schools.

The inspecting staff of Girls' Schools consists of one Inspectress, one Deputy Inspectress, three Assistant Inspectresses for the General Girls' schools and two Assistant Inspectresses for the Hindustani Girls' Schools. The Inspectress is in general charge of Girls' education in the State and exercises general control over all Girls' schools. She is in direct charge of all the Girls' High and Normal Schools in the State except the Maharani's High School, Mysore, which is in the charge of the Inspector-General of Education, Kannada Middle and Incomplete Middle Schools in Bangalore, Kolar, Chitaldrug, Shimoga and Kadur Districts, Kannada Primary Schools in localities that have Middle or Incomplete Middle Schools therein, except the Bangalore City. While exercising general control over the institutions in charge of the Deputy Inspectress and her subordinates, the

Inspectress has under her control all the Hindustani Girls' Schools in the State and other institutions pertaining to girls' education in the five Districts named above. She has in her direct charge about 60 schools and 50 offices and exercises general control over 430 schools in direct charge of four Assistant Inspectresses, apart from the institutions in charge of the Deputy Inspectress and her subordinates. The Deputy Inspectress has in her charge all Kannada Middle and Incomplete Middle Schools in the Mysore, Tumkur, and Hassan Districts, all Kannada Primary Schools in localities that have Middle and Incomplete Middle schools therein except the Mysore City and all Kannada Primary Schools in the Tumkur District. She exercises general control over all Kannada Primary schools in the Mysore and Hassan Districts, which are in charge of one Assistant Inspectress. She may also be required to inspect Hindustani Girls' Schools in localities which she visits and send up visit notes to the Inspectress. The number of institutions in her direct charge is about 110 schools and one office and she also exercises control over 153 Primary schools which is in the charge of one Assistant Inspectress. Of the Assistant Inspectresses, the Assistant Inspectress Bangalore, is in charge of Kannada Primary schools—about 127—excluding those in charge of the Inspectress, in Bangalore and Kolar Districts. The Assistant Inspectress, Shimoga, is in charge of Kannada Primary schools—about 120—excluding those in charge of the Inspectress, in Shimoga, Chitaldrug and Kadur Districts. Those two and the two Assistant Inspectresses of Hindustani Girls' Schools are directly subordinate to the Inspectress. The Assistant Inspectress, Mysore, is in charge of Kannada Primary schools—about 153—excluding those in the charge of the Deputy Inspectress in the Mysore and Hassan Districts and she is directly subordinate to the Deputy Inspectress. Of the two Assistant

Inspectresses of Hindustani Schools, one is in charge of the schools in the Districts of Bangalore, Kolar, Chitaldrug and Shimoga and the other in charge of the schools in the other four Districts.

*Educational
adviser to
Government.*

In view of the numerous problems relating to educational policy, methods and organisation outlined in the orders on the Education Memorandum that come up for solution from time to time, Government have felt the need for a technical expert who could advise them on such important matters and facilitate their decision. Government have accordingly appointed Dr. Seal, Vice-Chancellor of the Mysore University and an eminent educationist of vast experience, as Educational Adviser to Government with power to advise on all important matters connected with the general educational policy, organisation and methods, specially in the grade of Secondary Education, and also with reference to development of Scientific and Vocational Education in all grades and to suggest the methods by which the advice given might be carried out. He has also authority to test the efficiency of the working and organisation of all schools and training institutions by inspection, if necessary, of selected institutions. The appointment of the Educational Adviser has not in any way affected the position and responsibility of the Inspector-General as the administrative Head of the Department and all official correspondence with Government from that Department is as usual addressed by the Inspector-General of Education direct to Government.

PRIMARY EDUCATION.

Number of
Schools and
pupils in 1881.

At the end of 1881, there were in the State roughly 907 Primary schools and 38,296 pupils in them. Ever since, there has been a steady rise in the number of institutions and the strength of the pupils attending the

same, clearly testifying to the growing consciousness of the people of the benefits of education.

The question of expansion of Elementary education through the agency of indigenous schools was taken up in 1894-95, when a scheme was formulated for registering and aiding these schools, on condition of their teaching three easy standards of a curriculum specially prescribed for them. Schools for Panchamas, Lambānis and other specially backward classes were established in 1901-02. Government felt convinced that, in order to promote the spread of education as widely as possible, the efforts and funds of Government should be supplemented by those of private agencies and local organizations, which should be induced to bear an appreciable portion of the cost of education. The scheme of aided Elementary schools put forward by the Inspector-General of Education was considered well-suited to evoke and organise local effort in the rural areas of the State. Government therefore accorded sanction to the proposal of the Inspector-General of Education to make the village as a whole responsible for maintaining the aided schools and for the payment of a suitable salary to the teacher, the grant paid by Government being supplemented by their own contributions. The encouragement thus given by the introduction of a system of grant-in-aid gave the impetus to the starting of a large number of aided schools which stood at 2,556 at the close of the quinquennium ended 1915-16. A system of compulsion was also introduced by the passing of the Elementary Education Regulation V of 1913. The succeeding two paras give a brief account of the origin and the working of the scheme.

Expansion of
Elementary
Education of
1894-95.

About the year 1900, a representative of the people of Mysore proposed to Government in the Dasara

Compulsory
education.

Representative Assembly that primary education should be made free and compulsory in the State. Government, for various reasons, could not accept the proposal, but the suggestion was noted for consideration.

Elementary
Education
Regulation
V of 1913.

Later on, during the year 1913, the Mysore Elementary Education Regulation V of 1913 for the introduction of compulsory education in selected centres of the State received the assent of His Highness the Maharaja in October 1913, and became law in 1913-14. A special officer of the status of a District Inspector was employed to work out the details of the scheme. Compulsion was restricted to the ages of seven to eleven. The Regulation enjoined on parents and guardians, the duty of sending their children and wards to school and prohibited the employment of children of compulsory age not under instruction. School Committees were appointed for each area by the Inspector-General of Education and in Municipal areas by the Municipal Council with concurrence of the Inspector-General of Education for enforcing the provisions of the Regulation. One of the members of the Committee was appointed an Attendance Officer to perform the executive functions of the Committee. The functions of the Committee under the Regulations and Rules thereunder are :—

- (1) to investigate the educational requirements of the locality and take steps to supply them ;
- (2) to maintain up-to-date lists of boys of the compulsory age ;
- (3) to submit returns of attendance at schools ; and
- (4) to issue warnings and institute prosecutions for the violation of the terms of the Regulation.

The functions of a local body under the Rules consist in preparing the census of boys of compulsory age and forwarding them to the School Committee and revising such lists once a year. Thus while the School Committees

were statutory bodies independent of the Municipal and Local Boards, the Local Boards had a voice in the constitution of the School Committee and an important duty in preparing the census of boys of compulsory age, but neither of these bodies had any financial responsibility in the working of the scheme.

The scheme was introduced in fifteen selected centres during 1914-15. Out of 16,000 boys of the compulsory age in the fifteen centres, 10,800 were found to be already attending one school or other and arrangements were made for the admission of 1,200 more. Proposals for the opening of about 100 new schools with additional hands for the existing ones were sanctioned in March 1915.

In 1916, the Compulsory Education Scheme was brought into operation in 12 new centres making up a total of 27. Thirty new schools were started and about 3,600 boys of the compulsory age were induced to attend school. Comparatively little compulsion was used, notices of warning being served only in 82 cases, where parents had failed to send their boys to school.

The scheme was extended to 41 new centres during the year 1916-17, making a total of 68 centres at the end of June 1917. The Regulation had also been made applicable to girls between the ages of 7 and 10 in the cities of Bangalore and Mysore.

In 1917-18, the scheme was applied in respect of a population of 6,50,000 and was in active operation in 68 centres. Preliminaries connected with the taking of the necessary census, formation of Attendance Committees, etc., were completed in 170 centres. In all the compulsory areas, 12,707 boys were newly admitted to schools. One thousand nine hundred and seventy-two warnings were issued and eleven prosecutions instituted, three ending in conviction.

At present, 240 centres in all have been brought under the compulsory Education Regulation, including the two cities of Bangalore and Mysore where the Regulation has been extended to include girls also.

Increase in
the number of
Institutions.

The tendency towards increase in the number of schools which was noticed during the quinquennium ended with 1915-16 continued during the next three years. The number of schools, both Government and aided, increased from 4,512 in 1915-16 to 8,966 at the close of 1918-19. From 1918-19, there has been a steady fall in the number institutions, which stood at 6,782 at the close of 1921-22, with a corresponding decrease in the strength of the pupils attending the schools, as shown in the subjoined table :—

Year	Institution	Strength	Year	Institution	Strength
1916-17	6,827	2,36,456	1919-20	9,422	2,42,400
1917-18	8,761	2,67,601	1920-21	8,800	2,21,974
1918-19	9,596	2,48,172	1921-22	6,782	1,97,752

Though there has been an appreciable reduction in the total number of schools at the close of 1921-22, it has to be noted that there was a slight increase in the number of strength of the schools managed by the Department. The fall is chiefly due to the closure of a large number of aided and unaided schools as can be seen from the following tables :—

Primary Schools according to management.

Year	Government	Aided	Municipal	Unaided	Total
1916-17	2,352	4,227	22	226	6,827
1917-18	2,404	5,942	31	384	8,761
1918-19	2,531	6,991	29	146	9,696
1919-20	2,417	6,984	21	50	9,422
1920-21	2,444	6,287	19	50	8,800
1921-22	9,423	4,331	19	9	6,712

Strength of Primary Schools according to management.

Year	Government	Aided	Municipal	Unaided	Total
1916-17	123,286	105,623	1,931	6,609	236,456
1917-18	112,246	134,918	2,586	7,848	257,601
1918-19	104,087	134,005	2,218	2,862	243,172
1919-20	102,999	186,459	1,917	1,025	292,400
1920-21	206,452	112,693	2,019	810	321,974
1921-22	105,444	90,101	2,082	122	197,752

Various reasons have been assigned to this marked fall in the number and strength of the institutions. The adverse seasonal conditions and the economic depression due to the world war, which enhanced the cost of living and compelled the parents to withdraw their children from schools to attend to their immediate wants at home, the prevalence of epidemics, especially the influenza which claimed such a heavy toll of victims, the closure of schools owing to non-payment of contributions by the villagers towards the pay of teachers, the want of sufficient number of qualified teachers willing to take up service on the meagre salary offered to them, absence of interest on the part of the villagers and want of sufficient number of inspecting officers to visit the schools and guide and encourage them, are the chief reasons that contributed to the decrease in the number of institutions and the strength of the schools.

With the growing demand for education it was felt that the funds provided by the State for the purpose were quite inadequate to meet the situation and it was therefore considered desirable to devise a scheme by which the efforts and funds of Government could be supplemented by private agencies. Government undertook to pay part of the salary of the teacher and part of the cost of the equipment, provided the villagers or the local organisations consented to meet the remaining amount. This liberal attitude on the part of Government

Aided Village
Elementary
Schools.

resulted in the starting of a large number of institutions with the consequence that at the end of the year 1919-20 there were 6,934 aided institutions. Though the natural inclination of the villagers was for Government schools, which exempted them from any contribution whatsoever, they were obliged to be satisfied with a Grant-in-aid school lest they should be without any school. But with the abatement of the first blush of enthusiasm, the villagers in most cases failed to pay the contribution towards the teacher's salary and equipment with the result that the teacher had to be satisfied with the salary grant which he got from Government and as the grant towards equipment depended on the payment of the contribution of the other half by the villagers, and as these were under no circumstances contributed, most of the schools remained as "no-equipment-schools" without black-board, arithmetical frames, etc.

Their
unsatis-
factory
condition.

The unsatisfactory condition of these schools was many a time brought to the notice of Government by the members of the Representative Assembly who repeatedly urged for their conversion into Government schools. This was also recommended for the consideration of Government by the Inspector-General of Education in his Memorandum. Another point brought to the notice of Government in this connection was that, while primary education in Government schools which are established in important centres which can afford to meet the cost of the same was virtually free, it was highly inequitable that the rural population should be made to contribute towards the maintenance of schools intended for them, making the statement that Primary education is free a virtual misrepresentation in as much as it was not based on actual facts. Moreover, most of the primary schools in rural areas being of a lower Primary type, consisting of only infant and first class and the limit of

the staff to one teacher, a system condemned by all educationists, has prevented their development and affected their efficiency.

It was originally intended to take under Government management all aided schools after a continued existence of three years, but, on account of the financial liabilities involved, the limit was subsequently raised to seven years. But even this could not be given effect to as Government were not able to allot funds for the purpose owing to financial stringency.

After a careful consideration of all the problems involved, Government laid down in their order on the Memorandum that all village aided Primary schools which serve the need of a sufficiently large population and which have no competent management should be converted into Government institutions according to a well-defined programme extending over a certain number of years, the additional expenditure thereby involved being distributed between Government and local resources. In preparing the annual programme, certain principles have also been indicated for adoption with a view to redistribute the schools so as to provide educational facilities to as large a number of people as possible. Subject to the above general principles, conversion of aided schools is made dependent on condition that the village has a population of at least 500 persons and that the school has a proper building for its accommodation or the villagers deposit a contribution of half the cost of maintenance of the same and that it has been in existence for three years with an average attendance of not less than 30 pupils, except in the *malnad* where the minimum is fixed at 20.

Government's
Policy
relating to
same.

The expenditure due to the programme of educational improvement referred to above is intended to be met partly by a resumption of certain resources (*Mohatarfa* and Local Fund General) given to local bodies in the

expectation of their taking up additional functions and partly from proceeds of a cess to be levied by these Bodies for purposes of education. The resumption of *Mohatarfa* and Local Fund General has not yet been found possible as the District Boards have undertaken increased liabilities on the strength of these resources and would very much be handicapped, if the resumption is insisted upon. So far, five Districts—Bangalore, Chitaldrug, Hassan, Shimoga and Tumkur—have levied a cess of half an anna in the rupee and, with the amount realised in the first two Districts, orders have been issued to convert 63 and 39 aided Primary Schools respectively into Government institutions. The question of converting the aided Primary Schools into Government schools in the other Districts with the amounts realised therein is under the consideration of Government.

Adult
Schools.

These are aided institutions which are intended for the education of artisans and labourers, who are unable to attend the schools during the ordinary school hours. Adult education is of two kinds, either of the nature of continuation education for literates or of elementary education for illiterate adults. The encouragement given by Government by way of liberal grants led to the opening of a large number of schools, which increased by leaps and bounds from 130 in 1914-15 to 2,671 at the close of 1918-19. The grant paid by Government varies from Rs. 3 to Rs. 8 in village areas to Rs. 14 in Taluk stations where there are two different classes, one for elementary instruction in the three R's and the other for imparting instruction of slightly higher standard. Though the schools multiplied very rapidly and even the total attendance conveyed the impression that the experiment was a success, closer examination revealed defects of a serious character. The rapid increase in the number of schools was due at least as much to the anxiety of the

teachers to supplement their income as to that of adults in the State for education. The attendance was rather irregular, due to the impossibility of maintaining any discipline over adults, owing to the exigencies of harvest and other reasons, the counter-attraction of *jātras* and weekly fairs and the fluctuating interest of the students due to fatigue of manual work. The curriculum of studies was also open to objection as being too literary and not practical so as to be useful to adults in their daily avocations. No proper text-books were prescribed for these schools as also no examination to test the value of the work done in these institutions and no proper inspecting staff was provided for to supervise the working of these schools.

On account of these defects, several of the Adult and Night Schools were in a languishing condition and it was considered that any further expenditure on the same was not likely to be beneficial. It was therefore ordered that 50 per cent of the schools should be closed with the result that at the end of 1921-22 there were only 1,259 schools with a strength of 20,646 as against 2,671 schools with a strength of 43,205 at the close of 1918-19. This decrease in the number of institutions is not a matter for alarm since the schools closed were such as had deteriorated to such an extent that any further continuance of the same was neither in the best interests of the taught nor of public revenue.

One direction in which improvement was effected was in regard to the prospects of school-masters. "It has been found," wrote the Inspector-General of Education, "that the progress of Primary education is much impeded for want of sufficient encouragement to the masters doing efficient work or meritorious work." A new school with a higher pay varying from Rs. ten to Rs. twenty-five was sanctioned and a certain number of appointments made

Encourage-
ment to
Teachers.

in each grade. In November 1914, out of 2,379 teachers in village schools, no less than 2,088 were getting a pay of Rs. ten. After the reorganisation, out of a total number of 2,938 teachers, 1,251 received Rs. ten a month, 1,000 Rs. twelve a month, 570 Rs. fifteen, 71 Rs. twenty and 38 Rs. twenty-five a month. The additional expenditure as estimated in 1913 was Rs. 46,332 a year. The teachers in Government Elementary schools are passed candidates, while some in the aided institutions are unpassed men, the percentage of such persons being about ten. The teacher in a Government Elementary school of a single-teacher type gets only Rs. ten while the senior master of an institution which has more than one teacher gets Rs. twelve. Owing to the increased cost of living due to unfavourable seasonal conditions and the after effects of the war, Government sanctioned a consolidated allowance of Rs. five, which was subsequently merged in the pay, to all subordinate establishments in service and this was also extended to the tutorial staff. Including this allowance, the village elementary school-master gets Rs. fifteen or seventeen as the case may be. As the remuneration now given is deplorably low, the orders on the Memorandum contemplate a minimum pay of Rs. twelve, excluding the allowance, rising gradually with increase in service to a grade of Rs. 20—1—25. Effect has not been given to this on account of financial considerations.

Most of the schools opened in recent years were of the one-teacher type and continued to remain so for years together even though there was a large accession of strength. The result was that a single teacher had to impart instruction at the same time to various batches of students in different degrees of progress and in various subjects. Under such circumstances, the teaching could not but be imperfect and inefficient and it was therefore felt necessary to provide for the automatic expansion of the staff as the strength increased. A scale has been laid down in the

orders on the Memorandum according to which any school with less than 30 pupils will get one teacher and one more for every additional 30. This arrangement is intended to remove the inconveniences due to having a single teacher, besides making the teaching more efficient.

Attempts were made to improve the staff of Village Schools by giving the more efficient of them training in Normal Schools. The system in existence at the beginning of 1911-15 was defective, in that the less efficient of the masters were sent up for training in the belief that a course of training would improve them. "Experience however showed that such teachers were incapable of profiting by the training they received in the Normal School. Any expenditure that was incurred on training such masters might be said to be literally wasted. This was not all. The stipends provided were so low, that substitutes to whom the stipend of Rs. five or six a month really went as pay were men of poor qualifications, who exchanged places indifferently, either as acting village school-masters or police constables. As batches of teachers were selected for training year after year, the substitutes continued to hold acting appointments until they could claim and secure permanent places. A perennial supply was thus kept up of indifferent teachers. To check the growth of this evil, it was proposed to raise the value of the stipends all round so as to make them sufficiently attractive to men of higher calibre and attainments to come forward when they were not already employed in the department, and to make it possible to employ qualified substitutes when teachers already in service were selected for training. In future, young, intelligent and energetic teachers would be selected for training whether they hold permanent or acting appointments and only promising young men would be selected as substitutes on the understanding that they would not

Training of
Teachers.

receive permanent appointments unless they underwent a course of training in the Normal School as soon as permanent incumbents returned to their work. By this arrangement, it was hoped that the efficiency of teachers in the lower grades would be vastly improved and that a number of young men would come forward on their own account also to undergo Normal training in the hope of securing permanent appointments." The value of the stipends was increased and only the better class of teachers were then selected for training. It is under contemplation to still further enhance the amount of the stipends to enable the department to secure the services of really capable men for this important work.

Of the 5,348 teachers who have passed the English and Vernacular Lower Secondary Examinations, there are only about 2,000 who are trained. Most of the teachers of the aided institutions though qualified are not trained men, with the result that the teaching is not as efficient as it could be. The methods of teaching in many cases are antiquated owing to the ignorance on the part of the teacher of any method at all. This defect could only be cured by getting all the teachers trained and earnest efforts were and are being made in this direction by providing for the annual training of 400 masters from Government schools and 90 from aided schools, in the Training College and District Normal Schools of the State. Though it would be possible at this rate to man the Government schools with a trained staff within a reasonable distance of time, it would not be possible, for a very long time to come, to staff the aided institutions with trained men.

Provision for
higher
qualifica-
tions.

The teacher in the village school was generally one who had passed the Kannada Lower Secondary Examination. Those who passed the Upper Secondary Examination would be a better class of teachers, but there were

not enough schools at the beginning of the quinquennium (1911-16) where this course could be taken. There were Upper Secondary classes in the Normal School, Mysore, for men, and, for women, there were classes in the Maharani's College. Classes were opened during 1911-16 for giving instruction up to the Upper Secondary Standard in Davangere, Doddballapur, Tirthahalli and Nanjangud; and in the Girls' Schools in Bangalore and Tumkur. The experiment was continued by opening classes for men in Tumkur, Shimoga and Hole-Narsipur. But by experience, it was found that the classes for girls at Bangalore and Tumkur and for men at some of the other places were not working satisfactorily. Hence in 1920, some of these classes were closed and, at present, classes for men exist in Shimoga, Tumkur, Mysore, Hole-Narsipur and Nanjangud and in Mysore only for girls.

A feature of the policy in this period (1911-16) with regard to primary education was the larger use of aided schools for the spread of elementary education among the people. The establishment of 1,000 new aided schools was sanctioned in May 1914, and 100 more, eight months after. To secure efficiency, Government ordered that the teachers employed should as far as possible be persons who had passed the Lower Secondary Examination and to ensure a good return on the money spent, it was ordered that each school should be sure of at least 15 children on the rolls and an average daily attendance of not less than 10.

Grant-in-Aid
Schools.

The work of these schools was supervised by the School Committees in the villages, the Taluk Progress Committees and the District Committees of the Economic Conference. To provide for adequate supervision of the new grant-in-aid schools, the inspectorate was strengthened in 1915. Owing to the large expansion of

Their
Supervision.

the Departmental activities and the increase in the number of institutions, the existing Inspectorial Staff was found to be quite inadequate to cope with the work. To remedy this state of affairs, the Inspectorial Staff was strengthened by the addition of 20 Educational Supervisors and by the withdrawing of the eight Assistant Inspectors who had been given as Office Assistants to the District Inspectors of Education. Though some improvement was effected by this increase in strength and readjustment, still it did not meet the situation adequately; and with the abolition of the posts of Educational Supervisors, the situation became worse. The numerical insufficiency of the existing staff and the need for urgent improvement in this direction have been recognised by Government who have recently sanctioned the increase of the strength of the Assistant Inspectors from 28 to 45 with a direction to redistribute the charges so as to equalise the work. The distribution recently sanctioned by Government gives about 150 schools to each Assistant Inspector.

Visual
Instruction
Scheme.

With the object of educating the masses and also imparting instruction to the pupils in Primary Schools in rural parts by lectures illustrated by pictures including moving ones, a cinema operator and a visual instruction lecturer were appointed. The lecturer toured in the Districts by turns and delivered lectures mainly in cultural and sanitary subjects, illustrated by lantern and cinema pictures. He was also deputed to attend *jātras* and conferences at the request of the local officers to deliver lectures and give shows. But the two appointments were abolished in July 1922 and the work done by these officers stopped from that date.

Examina-
tions.

Promotion from class to class is given on the result of an examination conducted annually about the same time

of the year by the Inspecting Officer in the case of Village Elementary Schools and by the Head-master in the case of Primary classes attached to the Anglo-Vernacular Schools.

The Government schools follow the Departmental curriculum of study, so do the aided schools in all important respects. The subjects for study are the three R's and in the higher classes some history and geography, while provision is also made in the syllabus for taking Agriculture, Mensuration, Hygiene and Sanskrit as optionals in the highest class. In the Memorandum on Education submitted to Government, the Inspector-General of Education proposed that the primary course might be one of three years with three standards including the infant class, with Vernacular as the medium of instruction. With a view to make the course sufficiently long and continuous so as to give, by the time it is completed, the rudiments of education entitling the pupils to be considered as literate, Government have directed that all Primary Schools should be so remodelled as to provide for a four years' course. Accordingly, the curricula of studies have been revised so as to cover a period of four years with special provision for giving moral instruction and teaching object lessons and kindergarten gifts and occupations on a more extended and improved basis. A course of nature study has also been provided for, as also drawing, with a view to develop the powers of observation of the children. The anomaly of imparting instruction in English in the Second and Third Standards of some of the Primary Schools has been done away with as the medium prescribed is Vernacular for the full primary course.

Curricula of studies.

An important problem connected with the administration of Primary Education is whether the Department

Control of Primary Education.

should retain control of the same or whether in the interests of efficiency and effective control, it should be transferred to local bodies. So far back as 1883, Sir K. Seshadri Iyer while speaking about the responsibilities of Local Bodies observed as follows:—

“One of the charges of Taluk Boards will be elementary education. I cannot lay too much stress on this most important subject. The Hobli Schools have certainly proved not an adequate medium for the wide spread of elementary education. They are wanting in that popular element in their constitution and direction which alone can give them success and I have therefore provided that the Local Bodies assisted by Village Boards, where practical, will take entire charge of these schools, manage them with definite funds that will be placed at their disposal appointing and dismissing the masters at their own discretion, the Government interference being limited purely to the prescribing of the proper standard of education in them and to providing the Boards with a good and competent staff of Inspectors. Thus organised, the Hobli Schools will have all the elements necessary for their success and great usefulness.”

Though a part of the local cess was earmarked for education, the question of transfer of control over primary education to local bodies was not given effect to for one reason or other. The defects of the present system of departmental control over rural schools in so far as the local people have no control over the teachers to keep them up to the mark and maintain the efficiency of the schools have been recognised but nothing tangible has been done in the direction of removing these defects except that of starting Village Committees in a large number of centres. The question whether the time has come when the local bodies can safely be entrusted with control of these schools was carefully considered by Government who have come to the decision that the transfer might be postponed till the remodelling of the schools as contemplated in the orders on the Education Memorandum.

While dealing with the question of compulsory education, the Government have observed that all Municipalities should follow the example of the Mysore City Municipal Council in taking over the control of Primary Education by meeting a substantial portion of the expenditure and that control would be transferred to such municipalities as undertake to meet one-third of the cost of such education in their areas with the help of a cess of two annas in the rupee in cities and one anna in towns on all items of Municipal Revenue as well as from other sources, if necessary. In pursuance of the above, the Bangalore City Municipal authorities have recently consented to take charge of Elementary Education within their jurisdiction subject to the payment of one-third of the cost which may not exceed the limit of one lakh of rupees for a period of five years and to payment separately of one-third of the actual cost incurred for the construction of new school-houses. The school, though literally under the control of the Municipal Council, who will provide for their regular inspection, would still be amenable to Departmental discipline and Departmental rules. The transfer of control in the remaining areas has been deferred for some time to come.

The steady increase in the number of Primary Schools and in the level of prices of equipment owing to the conditions brought about by the world war, and the increase in the emoluments granted to the school-masters in consideration of the high cost of living, have inflated the amount of expenditure on Primary Education which has steadily risen from Rs. 6,37,814 at the close of 1915-16 to Rs. 13,37,865 at the end of 1921-22 working out to a percentage of 30.11 as compared to the total expenditure on education, as against 22.9 at the end of 1915-16. Though the number of schools during the period more or less remained the same, the expenditure

Expenditure
on Primary
Education.

shows a large increase, mainly due to the higher cost of equipment, increased salaries paid to the staff, etc.

Accommoda-
tion.

One of the most important among the facilities required for a uniform expansion and thorough consolidation of education in all grades in the State is the provision of suitable buildings for housing the different institutions. Such provision has been tacitly accepted in all educationally advanced countries, as having the first claim on the consideration of Government. The remarkable increase in the number of schools during the last decade outran the construction of good buildings to accommodate them with the result that a large number of schools have been opened with practically no habitation for them except the *pials* of houses, village *chāvadis*, deserted houses or decaying temples. The people generously came forward in many instances with contributions for school buildings with the expectation that Government would supplement the same by an equivalent grant and provide them with school buildings at an early date. Information available goes to show that contributions have been received from 238 villages in the State, the total amount being a little over Rs. 60,000. The large amount of contribution is a clear testimony of the earnest and enthusiastic efforts made by the officers of the Economic Conference, the Revenue and Education Departments who persuaded the people to co-operate with Government in the task of providing suitable accommodation for their schools. But the expectation that Government would contribute the other half could not be fulfilled as, owing to the financial stringency, the provision for the purpose could not be increased to the necessary extent. The delay and inaction of Government in giving buildings to villages which had paid the contribution led to numerous complaints from the villagers concerned, but financial considerations stood in the way of taking prompt action.

The Board of Education, however, actively took up the consideration of this question and submitted its recommendations to Government. After a careful consideration of the recommendations of the Board, the Government have ordered that in future building contributions should be received from villages only in the case of aided schools selected for conversion into Government schools and of Government Village Elementary Schools towards which building contributions might be made. The procedure in the matter of payment of local contributions suggested by the Board, according to which the Department should notify at the commencement of each year the names of the villages where aided schools would be converted into Government institutions in the succeeding year and give them one year's time to deposit the contribution which should be subject to a certain minimum depending upon the strength of the school, that such contributions should be received in the treasury under the head "Education Deposits" and remain under that head till the Government grant is sanctioned and that the entire cost should then be transferred to the credit of the officer executing the work in question, has also been approved. As regards contributions which have already been received from the larger villages, it has been ordered that contributions of not less than Rs. 300 might be deposited in a savings bank in the name of the Inspector-General of Education to be utilised when the Department can find funds for the construction of the buildings. As regards the smaller villages where the contributions are small, the villagers should be persuaded to contribute an additional sum so as to bring the amount to a minimum of Rs. 300 and that, in case they are not prepared to increase the contributions within a prescribed time, the amount that has already been contributed should be utilised towards the purchase of the necessary school appliances if there is a school in the village and, if

there is no school and one is not likely to be opened in the future, it should be utilised for some other communal object; and in the case of villages that have not even an aided school, such villages should be provided with a school and the contribution utilised as suggested above, but, if within the end of the year it is found impossible to provide a school to such a village, the amount contributed should be refunded to the villagers to be utilised for some communal purpose. The Inspector-General of Education has been requested to submit a programme of village school buildings limiting the expenditure to a sum of two lakhs per annum and giving preference to works in respect of which contributions have been paid.

**Indigenous
Schools.**

Unlike Secondary education which in the State is conducted by schools either owned or supervised by Government, Primary education is conducted not only by Government and Aided schools but by what are called indigenous schools which do not follow the Departmental curriculum and do not come under the supervision of the Department. Some of these follow the Departmental curriculum with a hope of their being converted into either Aided or Government schools. Their number has been gradually decreasing as many of them have been converted into Aided Schools under the monthly grant system.

The indigenous school is held anywhere, where some space is available, on a verandah, or in a *mantap*, or in the village temple. The case of Government village schools was for long no better, for, in the beginning, villagers were required to provide a school building as an earnest of their desire to have a school and the school-house they provided was not always suitable. The large grants made in recent years and the money spent by charitably disposed persons for school-houses have brought about a change for the better, and it is reported

that a better type of building is to be generally found in many of the more important villages, with good light and air, and in fairly sanitary surroundings.

The teacher in an indigenous school is generally an unpassed man following the old methods of instruction and teaching the old subjects, "Yakshgānam" and "Amarkōsa" among them. In aided schools, there are in some cases passed men, but the majority of them are unpassed. The teacher in the Government school is generally a passed man and may also have received some training. A village school master may draw, according to his qualifications and length of service, any pay between Rs. 10 and Rs. 25 a month. If the village is an important one and has a Branch Post Office, the teacher or one of the teachers might do the work of Post-Master in addition to his school work and get a fee for that work. Perquisites of any sort to Government school-masters are not recognized by Government. The aided school-master may, and the master in an indigenous school generally does, receive from the villagers payment other than his fee and in other forms than money. Service for a certain period entitles the master in a Government school to a pension in old age.

The school-master holds a position of influence in the village: he is sometimes the priest and astrologer in the place and, in some cases, the medical man. His relation to the boys is generally one of affection, and theirs to him, one of respect. The boy in a village school might be of any age between four and fifteen or even older. He may be learning anything from tracing the letters of the alphabet to his arithmetic and history for the Lower Secondary Examination. Of whatever years and in whatever class, he is "loyal and god-fearing, obedient and respectful."

Village schools generally assemble twice the day, once for three hours in the morning from seven to ten

or (7-30 to 10-30 in the winter), and for the second time from three to five in the evening. Some schools assemble only once instead at 11 o'clock and go on till five in the evening, with an hour's interval in the middle. This is only in a few cases and it is generally considered that the former arrangement is more suited to village conditions.

Many of the villages have only one master and some have more than one, but in few village schools, there is a master for each class. It is therefore necessary for each master to look after more than one class, if not all the classes. This is generally managed by each master taking one or two of the higher classes and one or two of the lower. The fact of one master having more classes than one makes it necessary to do such different subjects with the different classes as can be conveniently done at the same time, to set sums to one class and do history with another for example. Subject to these restrictions, the more difficult work, arithmetic for instance, is done in the morning and the more easy work such as writing to dictation in the afternoon.

The Government schools follow the departmental curriculum of study; so do the aided schools in all important respects. The subjects of study are the "three R's" and in the higher classes, some history and geography. The departmental primers and readers in languages are used as school books and books recommended by the department in other subjects. Altogether, the subjects are all "literary." Practical instruction has been recently introduced in some of the schools, but, properly speaking, the classes in which such instruction is introduced are of the Lower Secondary grade. Some work of a practical sort is done where the teacher is a trained man and takes the necessary trouble to get some work done by the boys, but ordinarily, nothing is done. A wider adoption of kinder-

garten methods of teaching might tend to give a better course of work for children in village schools.

The methods of teaching are in many cases antiquated. This is due in a large number of cases to ignorance on the part of the master of any method at all. The trained master might be expected to show better results, but it has been found that in many cases he either forgets to apply what he has learnt, or does not apply it for some other reason. The teachers are said to be lacking in "originality." They complained of want of apparatus; they taught arithmetic theoretically and would not illustrate their theory with such easily procurable articles as tamarind seeds, pebbles of stone or sticks.

Promotion from class to class is given on the result of an examination conducted annually about the same time of the year by the Inspecting Officer. No general remark would apply to the attainments of all the boys of a village school as their knowledge is theoretical and almost entirely bookish. The teachers themselves had not learnt that there could be education outside the school-room. Even of this theoretical knowledge, the quantity possessed by the different classes necessarily varies. Many of the boys, mostly of agricultural and trading classes, are satisfied if they could read and write and do some addition and subtraction and leave off much earlier than is good from the point of view of a sound education. Others leave off earlier still, and forget very soon what little they learnt at school, so that a good number of those that joined schools become as illiterate a few years after leaving school as before they joined it. The rest proceed further up, and might, if the school is a fairly "advanced" school, have passed the Lower Secondary Examination in Kannada. Of the majority of the boys, it might be said that they continue literate, but that is all that could be said. They could read and they could write and on occasion use their arithmetic, but

their history and their geography and their hygiene are all forgotten in their after-school lives.

SECONDARY EDUCATION.

The term Secondary Education means teaching given in all classes above the Primary Grade. It terminates with the Secondary School Leaving Certificate Examination and as such it includes all schools above the Primary Grade.

Institutions. Secondary Education in the State is imparted in six classes of institutions:—

- (1) Vernacular Middle Schools,
- (2) Anglo-Vernacular Schools,
- (3) Rural Anglo-Vernacular Schools,
- (4) Schools for Europeans and Anglo-Indians,
- (5) English High Schools, and
- (6) Kannada High Schools.

The more advanced Middle schools teach up to the Vernacular Lower Secondary Examination, though so many of them do not prepare students for the examination, but maintain only one or two classes that are properly of the Lower Secondary grade of instruction. Among these schools are included the purely Hindustani and Telugu Middle Schools. The Anglo-Vernacular schools teach up to the English Lower Secondary Examination and in most cases contain classes from the infant class upwards to the Lower Secondary Class. The rural Anglo-Vernacular schools are practically Vernacular Middle Schools with one or two English classes attached to them and are a peculiar feature of the Middle School grade of instruction in the State. The schools for Europeans and Anglo-Indians are distinguished from the other Anglo-Vernacular schools in so far as instruction is imparted in them completely in the English language. The Kannada High Schools provide

for higher instruction for students who have passed the Kannada Lower Secondary Examination. Upper Secondary education in the Vernacular is a peculiar feature of the system of education in the State.

A large part of the Secondary Education in the State as of other education is carried on at the cost of Government. A certain part is managed by Mission and other private bodies.

Organisation.

The Middle Schools teach up to the Lower Secondary examination either in the Vernacular or English. The Anglo-Vernacular Schools maintain classes even of the Primary type and in the remodelling of these schools contemplated in the orders on the Memorandum it has been stipulated that the primary section in all Anglo-Vernacular Schools should be constituted into separate primary schools and the Vernacular Schools confined only to the Middle School classes. The purely Vernacular Middle Schools which prepare candidates for the Vernacular Lower Secondary Examination have outlived their days. Whatever may have been the justification for their existence in the past, the need for their continuance is no longer felt. With the general awakening of the masses and their realisations of the benefits of English education which is a requisite for all preferment in Government Service and other occupations of life, the appetite for a purely vernacular education, which commands a very poor value in the market, has diminished. The demand for English Education even in the rural areas has been ever on the increase as is evidenced by the opening of a large number of Anglo-Vernacular schools and representations are being repeated every year in the popular assembly for the provision of English education on an adequate scale in those parts. To meet the situation, some experiments

Middle
Schools.

have been tried which though useful as temporary makeshifts are not of much value as permanent solutions of the problem. A large number of rural Anglo-Vernacular Schools was started for teaching English in one or two classes and in some cases Vernacular Kannada Schools when existing side by side with English Schools were amalgamated with the latter. As a temporary expedient, special English classes were opened in respect of twenty institutions, ten in each circle, providing for a course of two years in English so as to fit the students for the English Lower Secondary Examination. This arrangement has resulted in considerable want of uniformity. A more satisfactory solution of the problem was therefore to do away with dualism in the type of schools and introduce a bilingual course in the Middle Schools which would afford equal opportunities to persons both in rural as well as in urban areas to obtain benefits which English education would lay open to them. Government therefore decided to establish Middle Schools of a uniform type and do away with the distinction between Anglo-Vernacular and Vernacular Middle Schools. They have sanctioned the conversion of 250 Vernacular Middle or rural Anglo-Vernacular Schools to fully developed Middle Schools of the bilingual type at the rate of 50 every year, but, as the resources necessary to meet the expenditure due to such conversion are not easily available, no immediate effect could be given to this important reform of educational improvement. The total number of Middle Schools at the end of June 1922 was 388 with a total attendance of 60,891 pupils. Of these 388 schools, 153 were Anglo-Kannada Schools, 134 rural Anglo-Vernacular Schools, nine Anglo-Hindustani Schools, twelve Anglo-Tamil Schools, one European School, 32 Kannada Middle Schools, one Telugu Middle School and 46 Hindustani Schools.

The education imparted in the primary stage, though extending over three years, was considered to be too rudimentary and it was therefore urged that instruction in the Middle School grade should be considered as an essential part of the minimum education necessary for the bulk of the population and that it had as paramount a claim as Primary education on the resources of the State. Consistently with this principle, the Dewan Sir Kantaraj Urs in his opening address to the Representative Assembly during the Dasara Session of October 1919 announced that it was His Highness' desire that all fees in the Middle Schools should be abolished, all education below the High School grade being imparted absolutely free. Accordingly, fees were abolished in all Government schools which increased the strain on the existing Middle Schools in so far as the concession increased the demand for admission to these schools. But this 'boon' operated prejudicially on the aided institutions the boys of which were tempted to migrate to Government institutions wherein no fees were levied. To remove this disadvantage, Government were pleased to lay down that aided agencies who abolished fees in their institutions would be reimbursed by Government for the loss sustained by them. The institutions concerned have not been slow to take advantage of the opportunity to abolish the fees and a special provision has been made in the budget to meet such charges of Grant-in-aid.

Abolition of
fees up to
Middle
School.

The pressing need of a large number of Middle Schools is also a better qualified staff. Attempts have from time to time been made to improve their prospects in certain directions. The scale of pay of the Anglo-Vernacular and Anglo-Hindustani school teachers has been raised with a view to attach graduates to such schools. To enable the Inspector-General of Education to increase the staff in proportion to the increase in strength,

Need for
more Middle
Schools.

Government have permitted him to appoint in anticipation of sanction additional teachers in all Anglo-Vernacular schools on a pay not exceeding Rs. 30 in District Head-quarter schools and Rs. 25 in other schools. The orders of Government on the Memorandum stipulate that no candidate who has not passed the S.S.L.C. Examination and has not been trained should be entertained as a teacher in the Middle Schools, nor any one appointed as a Head-master unless he has passed the Entrance or the Intermediate examination, the Head-masters in cases of important Middle Schools being graduates. The scale of pay has also been fixed, the lowest being 20—1—25 rising gradually to 75—10—125, the pay of the Head-master of the Middle School with a strength of 400 pupils or more and trained graduates who are Head-masters. The scheme has not, however, been given effect to pending provision of funds by Government.

Facilities for training.

Under the present arrangements, provision is made for the training of 62 teachers in the Upper Secondary course of the Training College and the District Normal Schools of Tumkur and Shimoga. In addition, 75 stipends of Rs. 12 each have also been sanctioned to induce private candidates to undergo the training course. The training of 35 teachers in Elementary English training is also provided for so as to have trained men for teaching subjects in the English language. To induce aided institutions to have a trained staff, the Grant-in-aid Code has been revised so as to provide for the full salary grant being paid in cases of trained and qualified teachers, the rates for untrained teachers being 75 per cent of the rates for trained ones.

Duration of the Course and Curricula of Studies.

According to the existing scheme, the Middle school grade of education comprises the 4th and 5th Vernacular classes and the 2nd to 5th Anglo-Vernacular classes.

As under the orders of the Memorandum purely Vernacular Middle School classes are to be abolished and Anglo-Vernacular Schools of a uniform type to take their place, the curricula of the Middle schools have been directed to be revised so as to provide for a 4 years' course in four Anglo-Vernacular classes. At present, Primary sections are attached to some of the Middle Schools under the supervision of the same Head-master. This arrangement has not been considered to be satisfactory and orders have been issued that Primary Section in all Anglo-Vernacular Schools should be constituted into separate Primary Schools.

The curricula of studies for Middle Schools have been accordingly revised providing for a course of four years. The subjects of study are Moral Instruction, two languages, English and Vernacular, Elementary Mathematics with simple lessons in Practical Geometry, Indian History and Geography, Nature Study and Elementary Science, Drawing, Manual Occupations such as card-board work or paper sloyd, modelling in clay, paper or pulp, Hygiene and Agriculture (theoretical and practical). Domestic Economy and Needle work have been made compulsory for girls in lieu of Elementary Science which is compulsory for boys only, but, with a view not to place girls desirous of proceeding to the high school stage at a disadvantage, Elementary Science is included as an optional to be taken only by lady candidates. Provision is also made for games and drill with a stipulation that every student should be encouraged to take part in some organised game for at least an hour every evening.

As a rule, Arithmetic, English Language, Indian History and Geography are taught in English in the two highest Anglo-Vernacular classes, the medium of instruction in other subjects being Vernacular. Whatever may be the justification for the use of English as

Medium of
Instruction.

the medium in the higher stages of instruction, it is believed by all that it has a very baneful effect in the lower stages of education. Valuable time at a most impressionable period of life which ought to be devoted to an understanding of things in general is wasted away in understanding a foreign language. The consequence is that the thinking power of the young student is weakened and his mental development retarded. With a view to avoid this evil and in conformity with the recognised principle in this respect, the orders on the Education Memorandum contemplate the introduction of vernacular as the medium of instruction throughout the Middle School course, English being taught only as a compulsory second language.

Lower
Secondary
Scheme.

The Middle School course terminates with an examination designated as Lower Secondary Examination either in English or in Vernacular. The English Lower Secondary course consists of two languages—, English and Vernacular—or classical languages—Arithmetic, History and Geography and one subject as option out of several subjects like Hygiene, Agriculture, Music and Needle Work, the last being for the benefit of girls. The Vernacular course is the same without English but with one more optional subject. The orders on the Memorandum contemplate the conversion of all Middle Schools into a uniform type of Anglo-Vernacular schools and so the rules for the Lower Secondary Examination have been revised making English a compulsory language for the Lower Secondary Examination. The revised rules will come into effect from 1925, till which date the old rules will be in force. As purely Vernacular schools cannot be closed immediately, provision is also made for the holding of Vernacular Lower Secondary Examination till further orders. To prevent overcrowding and to relieve the students of the hardships of travelling to

distant places, the number of centres for the examination was increased from 18 at the end of 1915-16 to 37 at the close of 1921-22.

The remodelling of the Middle School grade of education which is contemplated in the orders on the Education Memorandum has been given effect to from the beginning of the year 1923-24. All the existing schools have been classified into Middle Schools teaching for the English Lower Secondary Examination and incomplete Middle Schools training pupils for the Vernacular Lower Secondary Examination with English as second language. The Anglo-Vernacular and Anglo-Hindustani schools have been separated into Middle and Primary Schools and the Vernacular Middle and rural Anglo-Vernacular Schools have been reduced to Primary Schools except in the case of such as have a strength of over 15 pupils in the Vernacular III and IV classes, such schools being split up into Incomplete Middle and Primary Schools. In the interest of the higher education of women, girls' Vernacular Middle Schools which have a strength of not less than 10 in both the highest Kannada Middle School classes taken together have been converted as a special case into incomplete Middle Schools. Hindustani Girls' Schools and a few Kannada Girls' Incomplete Middle Schools have been permitted to be continued as Primary Schools with permission to train candidates for the Vernacular Lower Secondary Examination, till they are gradually converted into Incomplete Middle Schools as the necessary staff of qualified women teachers is secured. In accordance with the above remodelling, Incomplete Middle Schools will prepare candidates for the Vernacular Lower Secondary Examination with English as second language. The Incomplete Middle School is a stage in the conversion of the Vernacular Middle School course which has been adopted till funds can be found for

Remodelling
of Middle
School
Education.

developing these schools to the fully developed Anglo-Vernacular Schools of the uniform type.

High
Schools.

The total number of High Schools for boys at the close of 1921-22 was 18 of which 11 were Government, 6 Aided and 1 Un-aided with a strength of 7,690 pupils.

Kannada
High
Schools.

At the close of the year 1915-16, there were 6 Kannada High Schools with a strength of 168. With the object of combining general education and normal training in one and the same institution, the District Normal Schools at Bangalore, Tumkur and Shimoga were raised to the status of Kannada High Schools by the opening of Upper Secondary classes. Though these schools were created to popularise modern knowledge through the vernacular and to provide higher courses of instruction for the Lower Secondary Kannada students, still owing to the low value fetched by these graduates in the market, these schools never showed signs of tolerably vigorous life. These schools were therefore gradually abolished, the students attending the same being distributed between the Training College, Mysore, and the District Normal School, Tumkur. Though these schools had not much utilitarian value, still they served as recruiting grounds for teachers for the large number of Elementary and Middle Schools.

Staff.

The staff of the High School consists of a Head-master, Science Assistant masters according to the needs of each school and a number of language masters and *munshis*.

Facilities for
training and
research
work.

Provision has been made for the training of six graduates every year. As this is considered inadequate and as the number of untrained graduates in the Department is still very large, it is under consideration to increase the number to 12. The Board of Education

has suggested a scheme according to which a limited number of teachers who have put in service of not less than 5 years are proposed to be sent for post-graduate training at the University College or the Institute of Science for a period not ordinarily exceeding one year during which the selected candidates are given full pay and travelling allowance and the period treated as deputation counting for promotion and pension. The rules also provide for the aiding of a limited number of under-graduate teachers to improve their general educational qualification by undertaking studies for University degrees. The scheme is still under the consideration of Government.

As regards the medium of instruction in the High School course, Government have observed that they are not at present prepared to adopt Kannada as the medium of instruction and that English has to continue to be the medium of instruction in the University as it is an essential requisite in all the higher departments of Government service.

Medium of
Instruction.

The Secondary School Leaving Certificate Scheme regulates the studies of students in the High School classes, *viz.*, IV, V and VI forms. Its purpose is to arrange that a record of progress of the pupil throughout the High School course is maintained, as also an estimate of his performance at the final public examination held at the end of the VI form course. The certificate is awarded by a Board consisting of the Inspector-General of Education, *Ex-officio* President, six officers of the Education Department and six others with a Secretary. The members are appointed by Government for a period of 3 years and are eligible for re-appointment. The subjects of study are arranged in 3 groups. The first group which is compulsory consists of

The
Secondary
School
Leaving
Certificate:
Details of the
Scheme and
Course of
Study.

English, a second language, Elementary Mathematics including Commercial Arithmetic, Elementary course in Science, Elementary survey of History of India and of the Geography of the World with special reference to the British Empire, Sloyd or Drawing and Athletics and Games. Females take up the first six subjects and any two out of Music, Needle Work and Dress-making, Lace Work and Domestic Economy. The other two groups consist of optional subjects, the first group being for those intended to prepare for University course consisting of further courses in History, Mathematics and Science or classical languages, the second group comprising subjects fitting the students for a business life or public service. The results of school work done from the IV form onwards are entered against each subject taught in the school in the form of the number of marks gained out of a maximum of 100 for each subject except in the case of athletics and games and sloyd or drawing where a brief remark is entered together with the percentage of attendance put in at the drill class, but the school work of the year in which the pupil is not promoted to a higher form is not taken into consideration and the word "cancelled" is entered across the record in the certificate book and the remark attested by the Head-master. Towards the end of the course in the VI form, a written public examination is conducted by the Board which includes English, second language, Elementary Mathematics, Elementary Science and at least two of the optional subjects, but in the other subjects of the compulsory group the candidate is not examined. The marks obtained at such examination are entered against each subject in the space provided for the purpose in the certificate and the eligibility of a student either for a University course or for entering public service is determined after these marks are moderated in the light of the marks obtained by him in the class. Such moderation

of the marks is effected by the Board as follows:—The individual mark gained by him for the last year at school in each subject is multiplied by the average mark for the school at the public examination and the result divided by the average mark of his class for the last year at school. The figure thus obtained is added to the individual mark gained by him in the public examination and the total is then divided by two to obtain the final moderated mark. These moderated marks are also entered in the certificate. After consideration of these marks, the Board declares whether a student is eligible for a University course or whether he is eligible for public service.

Some slight changes have subsequently been introduced in the groupings and combinations of optional subjects with a view to afford special facilities for the encouragement of commercial and industrial education along with instruction in general subjects. Elementary Science was included as an examination subject with a view to give an opportunity to candidates to acquire a knowledge of the elementary scientific principles bearing on Physics, Chemistry, Physiology, etc. The system of passing the examination by compartments was brought into effect which has not only lessened the strain on schools and students but also reduced the severity of the examination. Private candidates have been allowed to sit for the examination, provided they appeared for the examination from any of the public institutions at least once. This salutary change has not only lightened the strain on the students, but tended to relieve the congestion due to overcrowding in many of the High Schools. But the private student can appear in his private capacity only twice and if he fails in both the chances, he is obliged to re-enter a recognised institution if he desires to appear for the examination further.

Recent
changes
introduced.

Vernacular
Upper
Secondary.

The Upper Secondary classes were intended to provide for higher course of instruction in the Vernacular for those who have passed the Lower Secondary Examination in the same language. The course is meant to provide a class of teachers strong in the vernacular who can teach all subjects in the vernacular in the Middle and Primary Schools. Some of them also pursue advanced study in the vernacular in the Pandits' and Maulvis' Classes. Owing to their doubtful utility, orders have been issued to close these classes except in a few Normal Institutions.

Hostels.

The original Grant-in-aid Code provided for payment of salaries to wardens or tutors of hostels and for the purchase, erection, or extension or rent of hostels. But no limit was stipulated as regards the amount of the grant, for each case was treated on its own merits, due regard being had for the funds available and to the general conditions of Grant-in-aid so far as they were applicable. In order to introduce definiteness and with a view to place the working of the Government hostels on a satisfactory basis and to encourage private agencies to come forward to start hostels, Government laid down that, in the case of the Government hostels, establishment and boarding charges including rent should be divided among the boarders, but where a Government building was provided, a room rent should be charged to secure a fair outturn on the total capital outlay and that equipment charges should be borne entirely by Government. As regards private hostels, the grant to meet the cost of providing building for the hostel was raised from one-third to one-half, subject to the condition that the plan of the building should be approved by the Department and that the hostel should be under departmental supervision. A grant of one-third of the cost of equipment and, if the hostel was kept in a rented building, a contribution of one-third of rent was also provided for.

In order to provide for satisfactory superintendence of hostels, the appointment of educational supervisors was sanctioned by Government as an internal part of the hostel organisation. The duties of such supervisors are :—

- (1) to look after the studies and work of the boarders for two hours every day,
- (2) to organise games and pastimes of a healthy character among the boarders, and
- (3) to look to the discipline of the boarders.

Generally, a teacher of the local Government school with sufficient qualification is selected as Educational Supervisor. Full cost of education supervision not exceeding Rs. 20 per mensem is met by Government.

The revised Grant-in-aid Code provides also for the grant of half the pay of the warden not exceeding Rs. 10 per mensem and half the estimated cost of the construction or purchase of buildings, subject to a maximum of Rs. 25,000 and an annual grant of Rs. 100 per year for maintenance and one-half of reasonable rent in the case of hostels located in private buildings, such grant not exceeding Rs. 2 per boarder per mensem. These liberal concessions have given an impetus to private enterprise and led to the opening of a large number of hostels.

The number of hostels at the end of 1921-22 was 51 including 8 for girls, of which 21 were Government, 23 aided and 7 unaided with a total strength of 2,240 boarders of which 452 were girls. The number of boarders who were students of the Secondary Schools was 1,384 including 250 girls.

All Government hostels are under the management of a Head-master, who is in some cases also the warden. For every hostel, whether Government or aided, there is a Committee of Management composed of gentlemen of the locality interested in the hostel. The duties of the Committee are to manage and exercise general supervision,

collect and maintain a reserve fund, regulate admissions, see to the maintenance of discipline and to punish on the complaint of the Educational Supervisor the servants and boarders whose conduct is such as to deserve notice.

**School life :
Athletics.**

A good number of schools have a well organised system of games conducted by teachers trained in the physical culture, vacation and scout classes. A large number of schools have foot-ball, cricket, tennis and hockey clubs, but want of suitable play ground attached to or very near some of the A.-V. Schools is a great handicap. Tournaments are held both at Bangalore and Mysore either during the Birthday and Dasara festivities or on other occasions when some of the teams from the mofussil compete. The dangers of a system of education which neglected the harmonious development of the body was realised long ago and to counteract its baneful effects, physical drill has been made compulsory in the Secondary School Leaving Certificate Scheme, thus giving physical culture its right place in the general scheme of education.

Excursions.

Excursions for purposes of acquiring knowledge outside the school room or for widening the knowledge already acquired are a commendable feature of the High School life which the students like immensely. Such excursions not only relieve monotony of school life but also possess a high educational value in so far as they stimulate the powers of observation, promote a keenness for acquiring knowledge of the world around us, develop powers of reasoning and create a lively interest in studies which are uninteresting with the aid of only text-books. Batches of students of various schools are taken on a visit to important centres of historical or other interest. One-third of the cost of cartage and trainage incurred by

the students as also the travelling allowance of the teachers accompanying the parties at the rate of one for every 20 students is met by Government. As these excursions were popular with the teachers and pupils of all kinds and grades of institutions, Government have sanctioned the scheme as a normal item of educational programme of the State with an annual budget provision for the purpose and the Inspector-General of Education has been empowered to sanction tour programmes of all schools and authorise the payment of Government contributions up to a maximum amount of Rs. 50 for each institution, subject to the condition that the budget allotment is not exceeded.

Another remarkable feature which deserves mention is *Journalism*. the journalistic activity indulged in by some of the schools and scout troops. "The Mysore School and Scout Magazine" was started in the month of December 1918 under departmental auspices and had very soon a circulation of as large a number of copies as 3,000. It secured for itself a clientele outside the State and even from countries of the Western Hemisphere. It is patronized by their Highnesses the Maharaja and the Yuvaraja who have been graciously pleased to donate each of them Rs. 50 towards the upkeep of the Magazine, "a gracious act of benevolence and sympathy which has kept the student world under a deep debt of gratitude." The example had a catching effect and several troops and schools started magazines of their own which form interesting reading and are a new feature in the development of school life in Mysore. The 4th Bangalore Troop started a journal by name "The Young Scout" and the Bangalore National High School, the Shimoga Collegiate High School and the Mysore Maharaja's Collegiate High School started magazines of their own. Journalism is strictly confined to matters relating to

school life without entering into political matters. The Inspector-General of Education in his administration report for 1918-19 observed that these magazines, if properly encouraged by small grants-in-aid, would form a healthy feature of school life and do much to aid development of understanding and personality in as much as they afford scope for self-expression and creative talent.

Libraries.

The High School and some of the important hostels are equipped with a library where books on various subjects likely to be useful to the students are stocked and issued either for general reference or for detailed study at home. A small fee is levied from each student and the sum thus realised supplemented by a contribution from the provision in the departmental budget is utilised for the periodical refurnishing of the library. The Library of the Maharaja's Collegiate High School has added to the collections a very important and attractive section, the gift of the late Dewan, Mr. T. Ananda Rao, thus betokening deep and conscious sympathy for educational progress. The institutions are also provided with reading rooms which subscribe for important periodicals and make them available to the students for study.

**Debating and
other
societies.**

Each High School or Hostel has generally a debating society. Meetings are held at frequent intervals when a paper on some important subject either educational, social or political is read and debated upon. Though these societies do not play as large a part in school life as could be desired, still they have a beneficial effect in so far as the discussion affords the boy an exercise in expression. Some of the schools have also dramatic societies which enact small plays or acts of plays on important occasions such as the school day celebrations.

Some have Historical Societies for the discussion of Historical subjects.

COLLEGIATE EDUCATION.

A distinctive feature of the Mysore University is that it has a continuous three years' Degree course, admission to which is secured by passing the University Entrance Examination after one year's special preparation at the Collegiate High School. Holders of S. S. L. C. certificates are thus required to attend additional classes for one year which are provided in some of the selected High Schools of the State.

Collegiate Schools, a distinctive feature.

In 1916-17, the year of the inauguration of the University of Mysore, Entrance classes were opened in connection with the Maharani's College, Mysore and the High Schools at Mysore, Bangalore and Tumkur. Similar classes were opened in 1917-18 in the High Schools at Shimoga, and in the Wesleyan Mission High Schools at Bangalore and Mysore and the London Mission High School, Bangalore. Sowcar Banumiah's High School at Mysore was raised to the status of a Collegiate High School in June 1920 with History as the optional subject. A University Entrance class in History was sanctioned to the High School at Chitaldrug, but the opening of the class has been deferred partly for want of funds and partly for the reason that the sections opened in the other High Schools, *viz.*, those at Tumkur and Shimoga and in the aided institutions at Bangalore have not been fully utilised. An Entrance class with Physics and Natural Science as optional subjects was opened from July 1922 in the Vani Vilas Institute for the convenience of girls who had till then either to attend the Collegiate High School, Bangalore, along with the boys or proceed to Mysore to join the Maharani's College and take History.

Number of Collegiate schools.

Subjects of
Study.

At the University Entrance Examination, a candidate is examined in—

(1) English.

(2) A second language (Kannada, Telugu, Tamil, Sanskrit, Hindustani, Persian or French): when a student selects Sanskrit or Persian as one of his optional subjects, he will be required to select for his second language any language other than Sanskrit or Persian.

(3) One of the following groups of subjects :—

(a) Physics, Chemistry and Mathematics or Natural Science.

(b) History, Logic and Sanskrit, or Persian or Elementary Economics.

No candidate is declared to have passed the Entrance Examination unless he obtains not less than 40 per cent in English, 35 per cent in the second language and 35 per cent for the whole group of optional subjects and also not less than 30 per cent in each of the subjects of the group: provided that the candidate who passes in English and obtains not less than 50 per cent in all the subjects together will be declared to have passed, though he may not have obtained a minimum either in the second language or in the optional groups or any one of the subjects included in the optional group.

Recognition.

Only such of the institutions as satisfy the conditions laid down by the University are recognised for the purpose of training students for this preparatory course.

The conditions for recognition or the continuance of recognition include that the school shall submit to periodical inspection by a person or persons deputed by the University Council and that it shall submit a short annual report of working together with a list of the staff of the school and of changes therein and a full and complete statement of accounts. The University Council is competent to cancel the recognition of any school if

it, for a period of three years in succession, fails to pass 33 per cent of the candidates sent up for the University Entrance Examination or if the report of inspection received shows that the school is no longer worthy of recognition or if it is found that any of the essential conditions of recognition are no longer fulfilled.

The administrative control of these Collegiate High Schools is vested in the Inspector-General of Education, but the examinations are conducted and the results announced by the University. As these classes prepare students specially for the University, it is necessary that the course of study therein should be correlated with the University course. For this reason, the courses are framed in consultation with the University Board of studies. The University deposes its professors to inspect these classes systematically with a view to secure efficiency in the teaching and co-ordination of work in the different schools. Every endeavour is made to make these classes really preparatory institutions to the University so that the students who pass the examination may profitably enter upon a true collegiate course, with no break in the continuity of the course of instruction and be able to benefit by the instruction which they receive.

The
Administrative
control.

The present period of one year for the Entrance course is considered too short not only to master the course of studies prescribed, but also to prepare students for the University teaching. The Calcutta University Commission have recommended a total course of five years by making the Intermediate or the preparatory course one of two years as against one year in Mysore. The Commission have observed "that the Intermediate College must be regarded as fulfilling a double purpose. In the first place it must provide a training such as will

Reorganisa-
tion.

qualify the students for admission to the University, in all its faculties or into other institutions for higher technological training, and in the second place it must provide a training suitable for students who, after completing their course, will proceed direct to various practical occupations." But the Collegiate High Schools in Mysore prepare only for the University courses (both arts and science) and for the Technical Institutions in the State, but students wishing to join Technical colleges outside the State have to take the degree before they think of admission to those colleges. The reorganisation of the University in the light of the recommendation of the University Commission is understood to be under the active consideration of the University Council.

MUHAMMADAN EDUCATION.

Early
History.

It was a feature of the early educational policy of the State to make provision for the education of special communities who might have a mother tongue different from the language taught in the general Government schools. Mysore has and has had a large Muhammadan population and the education of this section of the people was recognised as necessary at an early stage of the State's educational work. The policy ordinarily adopted at first was that of encouraging schools started by private enterprise by giving them a grant-in-aid. Schools came into existence rather slowly and by the end of 1871-72 there were five Government Hindustani schools and 20 *Madrassas* in receipt of aid from Government and two Girls' Schools. As the proportion of literates was 1 in 84, a change of policy was considered desirable in the direction of establishing more Government schools under a qualified staff so as to provide for an effective means of promoting education amongst the Muhammadan population. The change led to an improvement in the number of schools and at the close of 1890-91, there

were 119 schools for boys and 8 for girls with 5,078 boys and 281 girls in them. Two Assistant Deputy Inspectors were appointed from 1st February 1894 and 4 years later, a Deputy Inspector of Hindustani schools was added to the Inspecting staff. The number of institutions steadily rose as shown below:—

Year					Schools	Scholars
1900-01	279	10,436
1910-11	310	14,182
1915-16	530	21,851

Of the 530 schools at the close of 1915-16, 6 were Anglo-Hindustani Schools, 74 Middle Schools and 450 Primary Schools. Some of the Muhammadan pupils received instruction in the general schools either because there were no schools expressly intended for them near at hand or there were no schools of the type of instruction exclusively meant for them. The number of such pupils at the close of the above year was 7,441, bringing the total number under instruction in the various grades of education to 29,292. Of this total, 21,925 were boys and 7,367 girls and they were distributed as follows:—29 in Arts Colleges, 244 in High Schools, 8,313 in Middle Schools, 19,259 in Primary Schools, 29 in Training Schools, 229 in Industrial and Special Schools and 919 in private institutions. The percentage of pupils under instruction to the total population worked out to 10·04.

There was a steady increase in the number of institutions which rose from 530 at the close of 1915-16 to 905 at the end of 1918-19. Since then, there has been a slight fall especially in the number of primary institutions, the total number of schools at the close of 1921-22

being 864 of which 9 were A.-H. Schools, 76 Middle Schools, 778 Primary Schools and 1 Normal School. The number of pupils on the rolls has also exhibited fluctuations, the total number of candidates in public as well as in private and other institutions being 39,286 at the close of the year 1921-22. Of this total number, 12 were in Colleges, 433 in High Schools, 10,748 in Middle Schools, 26,555 in Primary Schools, 1,073 in Technical Schools, 465 in Village Indigenous Schools and 16 in Normal Schools. The perceptible decrease in the number of pupils attending the last but one type of schools is indicative of the fact that people have come to realise the advantages of sending their sons or daughters to departmental or aided institutions which have better equipment and impart better kind of instruction. The percentage of boys and girls at school to the total population of school-going age rose from 95.1 and 35.6 at the close of 1915-16 to 115.54 and 45.8 respectively at the close of 1921-22. The percentages are "a curious revelation of the educational conditions prevailing in the community and prove conclusively that a large percentage of the pupils are overaged and are drawn from beyond limits adopted as marking off the school-going from the rest of the population. They probably testify to the presence of a certain amount of earnestness and zeal for education and to the prevalence of conditions which do not permit of that earnestness being utilised early enough and to the best possible advantage."

Anglo-
Hindustani
Schools.

The total number of Anglo-Hindustani Schools is 9, located in Bangalore, Kolar, Chennapatna, Tumkur, Chitaldrug, Sira, Tarikere and 2 at Mysore. The number will show a rise in the near future when the Urdu Middle Schools are gradually converted into Anglo-Hindustani Schools as laid down in the orders on the Education Memorandum.

The total number of these schools stood at 76 with a total strength of 6,580 including 2,535 girls at the close of the year 1921-22. As laid down in the orders on the Education Memorandum, 3 Urdu Middle Schools, one in Chitaldrug District and two in Bangalore District, have been recently converted into *pukka* Anglo-Hindustani Schools while 2 more in the Hassan District have been proposed for conversion.

Hindustani
Middle
Schools.

The number of Primary Schools at the close of 1915-16 was 450 with a strength of 19,529 and increased to 816 during 1918-19. Ever since there has been a fall in the number of institutions, the figures for the years following being :—

Primary
Schools.

Year					Institutions	Strength
1919-20	786	23,702
2920-21	788	23,815
1921-22	778	22,314

The same causes which have operated to bring about a fall in the number of general aided primary institutions have also contributed to the decrease in the number of aided institutions meant for Muhammadans.

There is a separate inspectorial staff for the Muham-
madan schools, consisting of 3 District Inspectors and 4 Assistant Inspectors. At each of the District Headquarters, except Hassan, there is one Inspecting Officer. Though the number of schools within each range is not greater than the number allotted to the other Assistant Inspectors, still owing to the distance to be covered by the Urdu Assistant Inspectors whose jurisdiction extends over a District, much of the time which could be utilised for conducting a detailed inspection is spent in

Inspection.

travelling. The cadre of Assistant Inspectors has been recently increased to 48 and in the re-allocation the Muhammadan inspectorate has been given an additional Assistant Inspector.

The Urdu Girls' Schools were for a long time subjected to the inspection of the Urdu District Inspectors. Many a parent was deterred from sending his daughter to a school which violated the principles of the *gosha* system and ran counter to their social customs. To conciliate public opinion and sentiment in the matter, 2 Assistant Urdu Inspectresses were sanctioned by Government for being in charge of inspection of the Urdu Girls' Schools under the direction of the Inspectress. The inspection of the Girls' Schools is now entirely in the hands of these lady inspectors.

Scholarships. The development of education among the community has been facilitated by the grant of a liberal scale of scholarships with a view to induce poor students to take to education and those who are already receiving instruction to continue their studies in the higher grades. A sum of Rs. 600 has been earmarked from Gumbaz funds for the grant of scholarships to Muhammadan boys and girls. The rate of girls' scholarships is Rs. 2 to 3 tenable in the Urdu 4th and 5th classes respectively. In addition, a sum of Rs. 1,440 was provided annually to grant scholarships for Muhammadan students who were unable to study for the School Final and Higher University Examinations. These scholarships were divided into ordinary and special, the latter being given only to sons of Muhammadan State pensioners and members of distinguished families deserving special consideration. The rates of ordinary scholarships were Rs. 7, 5 and 4 for B.A., F.A., and High School forms respectively. These scholarships were subsequently merged in the Backward Class Scholarship scheme and the Muhammadan students are

now receiving scholarships from the amount set apart for Backward Class Scholarship on the basis of the school-going population. The amount of scholarship under this scheme allotted to the Muhammadans during the years 1919-20, 1920-21 and 1921-22 was Rs. 3,792, 3,792 and 3,200 respectively. Scholarships are also being awarded to the deserving Muhammadan students to enable them to prosecute their studies in the Muhammadan Anglo-Oriental College at Aligarh, the number of scholarships tenable at any time being fixed at 7. The value of these scholarships is ordinarily Rs. 25 each per mensem. Muhammadan girls are also entitled to scholarships under the Girls' Scholarship scheme, the total amount granted during the last three years being Rs. 180, 192 and 600. In addition to the above, Muhammadan students are also given scholarships from the Military and Palegar Scholarship Funds.

WOMEN'S EDUCATION.

Systematic activity for the education of women, there was none in the State till the middle of last century. The beginnings were made by the London Mission who in 1840 established the first Kannada school for girls. Very soon a girls' school was opened by the Hindus at Bangalore, but for some time girls were obliged to study in boys' schools, for want of separate institutions. Social prejudices were largely responsible for the slow growth of institutions, which numbered only 12 at the close of 1879-80. In the first year of the Rendition, the Maharani's Girls' School at Mysore was established, which remained under private management till 1891, when it was taken over by Government. It soon developed into a second grade college and was affiliated to the Madras University. Progress in other directions was also marked and the number of girls' institutions, both Government and aided, which stood at 33 in 1869-70, with a

Early
History.

strength of 2,071 pupils, increased to 294 with a total strength of 17,093 at the close of 1910-11 and showed a further increase to 530 schools and 41,035 pupils including those studying in boys' schools, at the close of the quinquennium ending with 1915-16. The number of pupils in the several grades of public institutions at the beginning of 1915-16 was:—

(1) College	13
(2) Secondary	11,059
(3) Primary	28,430
(4) Special institutions	320

The number of public institutions for girls has since showed a steady increase, rising from 525 schools with a strength of 27,959 in 1915-16 to 727 schools with a strength of 36,866 at the close of 1921-22. Some girls also attended boys' schools wherever there were no facilities by way of separate schools for them either because their strength did not justify the opening of a school or for other reasons. The total number of girls under instruction in all kinds of schools was 41,035 in 1915-16 which rose to 53,741 at the end of 1921-22. Of the 727 girls' schools during 1921-22, 3 were English High Schools with a strength of 106 pupils, 1 Kannada High School with a strength of 19 pupils, 13 A.-V. Schools with a strength of 2,205 pupils, 94 Vernacular Middle Schools with a strength of 10,651 pupils and 566 Primary Schools with a strength of 22,451 pupils. The percentage of girls under instruction to the total female population of school-going age was 9·7 in 1915-16 and it rose to 12·46 in 1921-22.

High Schools.

The 3 High Schools at the end of 1921-22 are the Maharani's High School, Mysore, the Vani Vilas Institute, Bangalore and the London Mission Girls' High School, Bangalore. The Maharani's High School at Mysore maintains the High School classes both in English and

Kannada, the A.-V. and Kannada Middle School classes besides normal and industrial sections. The industries taught in the school are rattan work, paper-flower making and sewing. The Vani Vilas Institute contains the High School classes in English and Middle School classes in both English and Vernacular. It has been further developed by the opening of the Entrance class in Science from 1922-23. The London Mission Girls' School is an aided institution with a strength of 40 in the High School classes and 163 in the Middle School section.

Excluding the Kannada High School section of the Maharani's College, two schools had been raised to the status of Vernacular High Schools—The Empress Girls' School at Tumkur and the Government Girls' School at Bangalore—by way of providing facilities for higher education of pupils who passed the Vernacular Lower Secondary examination in centres other than Mysore. The liberal scholarships awarded did not induce a large number of pupils to join them and so the classes in the Vani Vilas Institute and the Empress Girls' School were closed from July 1920 and arrangements made to strengthen the Upper Secondary classes at the Maharani's High School—which is the only Kannada High School existing at present—so as to meet effectively the altered requirements.

During 1915-16 there were, excluding the Anglo-Vernacular Sections of the Maharani's College and the London Mission Girls' High School, 12 Girls' Middle Schools in which English was taught, with a strength of 1,357, but at the close of the period of review there were only 13 institutions with a total strength of 2,205. Though there was a reduction in the number of institutions by one, there was a slight increase in the total number of pupils attending the same.

Middle
Schools.

Vernacular
Middle
Schools.

The number of Vernacular Middle Schools stood at 85 with a strength of 9,381 at the close of the year 1915-16, of which 60 were departmental, 24 aided and 1 unaided. The number steadily decreased and stood at 108 at the close of 1919-20 with a strength of 11,952. Since then, for reasons similar to those given in the case of boys' schools, there has been a decrease, both in the number of institutions and their strength which were 94 and 10,651 respectively at the close of 1921-22.

Primary
Schools.

There were 566 Primary Schools with 22,451 pupils attending the same during the year 1921-22, working out to a proportion of 1 to 11 as compared to Boys' Primary Schools. In order to reduce gradually this disparity in educational facilities, it has been laid down in the orders on the Education Memorandum that 500 new Primary Schools for girls should be established in the course of 5 years at the rate of 100 per annum, in places where a sufficiently large number of pupils are available. Financial considerations have not made it possible to give early effect to these orders, but with funds becoming available, it is hoped that earnest attempts would be made at increasing the number of institutions which would help to solve slowly but steadily the problem of female elementary education in the State.

Inspection.

With the increase in the number of institutions, the existing strength of the inspectorate, 1 Inspectress of girl's schools, 1 District Inspectress and 1 Assistant Inspectress, was found to be utterly inadequate to cope with the work and therefore the appointment of 3 more Assistant Inspectresses, on 75-10-125 each, was sanctioned, but the appointment of the District Inspectress was converted into that of an Assistant Inspectress and the charges distributed among the revised staff. For want of suitable candidates, two of the posts of Assistant

Inspectresses were kept vacant for some time, the Districts assigned to them being in charge of the respective District Inspectors. The posts were subsequently filled up and the schools are now entirely under the control of Women-Inspectorate.

The difficulty of obtaining an adequate supply of Staff. women teachers is an obstacle which has made the progress of Female Education extremely slow. Female Education has not made satisfactory progress in grades above the Primary in spite of attractions in the shape of scholarships and facilities for residence in hostels provided by Government. One of the principal causes of this falling off in attendance of girls as soon as the primary stage is passed is the employment of men teachers. Owing to social disabilities and other causes, the number of women who continue their studies in the higher course of instruction is very small with the result that the number of women available as teachers is very meagre and with this inadequate supply of women teachers the development of education has been prejudicially affected. In spite of these drawbacks, serious attempts are being made to improve the quality of the staff. An attractive scale of pay for lady graduates has been sanctioned as an inducement to obtain recruits as also tempt girls to take to higher education, and as regards the lower grades, Government have been pleased to direct that the scale of pay of school mistresses be fixed at 25 per cent in excess of the scale of pay of teachers in boys' schools.

With the object of getting as many mistresses as possible available for efficient teaching, a Normal School Training
Schools. for Hindu mistresses at Mysore and 2 more schools for others, *viz.*, Maharani's High School and Wesleyan Mission Normal School have been opened. The Upper Secondary classes in the Vani Vilas Institute and

Empress Girls' School which were in existence for a short time were closed on account of their poor strength. To induce educated ladies to take to teaching in larger number, stipends for private candidates have been increased from Rs. 8 to Rs. 12 for Upper Secondary training and to Rs. 10 for Lower Secondary training.

Curricula.

The orders on the Education Memorandum contemplate the revision of the curricula of studies so as to provide for a primary course of 4 years. In accordance with the above orders, the curriculum has been revised for boys' schools and the same adopted for girls' schools with the modifications and additions suitable for girls. For instance, under arithmetic, it is laid down that questions and problems selected should have a bearing on household work, domestic economy and bazaar transactions, and that under kindergarten gifts and occupations, sewing and needlework should be introduced and under drill, organised games such as *kolātam* and *jadekolātam*. Except with some other slight modifications, the curriculum is practically the same as for boys. It has also been ordered that the middle schools should be converted into one uniform type as the boys' schools and staffed as far as possible entirely with women teachers with special provision for industrial classes to teach cutting, needlework, embroidery, lace-making, etc.

Medium of Instruction.

The problem of medium of instruction being a very important one, affecting as it did the development of Female Education, was given due consideration by Government, who after taking into account the various opinions received laid down that the medium of instruction in Primary and Middle School grades of education for girls should be vernacular as in the case of boys, English being taught as a compulsory second language in the latter grade of education, the medium in the High School classes being English.

In the curricula of studies for girls' schools, physical education has not been ignored. Distinctions have of course been made between the games played by girls and those played by boys. To begin with, one should not forget that there are fundamental differences of physical formation, of physical capacity and endurance; boys bear up more easily than girls against a prolonged strain. Girls' games should for these reasons be lively, spirited and short. In some of the institutions, tennis, badminton, croquet and rounders are played.

School Life;
Physical
Education.

The difficulty experienced by girls from the mofussil who come to prosecute their studies in the Maharani's College was recognised by Government and a hostel was, therefore, established and attached to the institution. The 'Widows Home' started by the late Rao Bahadur A. Narasimha Iyengar from Devaraja Bahadur Charity fund was taken over under Government management and made part of this hostel to lodge and board free of charge the poor students. To meet similar difficulties, a hostel was also opened in connection with the Vani Vilas Institute which also accommodated mistresses undergoing industrial training. At the close of the year 1921-22, the hostel and the Home attached to the Maharani's High School had a strength of 33 and 20 boarders, respectively, while that attached to the Vani Vilas Institute had 11. The latter institution is located in a rented building. Plans and estimates for a building for the hostel close to the school with quarters for the Superintendent are stated to be ready, but the work has been put off for want of funds.

Hostels.

All the Girls' Schools are under the management of a local Committee consisting partly of Government officers appointed *ex-officio* and partly non-official gentlemen, and, where possible, also of English and Indian ladies

Girl's School
Committees.

evincing keen interest in female education. Government, in the case of Maharani's High School and of Girls' Schools at Head-quarters of Districts, and the Inspector-General of Education in other cases, appoint the Committees and the Presidents thereof for a period not exceeding 3 years. The Committees exercise general supervision over the management of the schools, inspect the same occasionally and thus maintain discipline and a high moral tone in the schools. They have power either to refuse admission to any girl or discharge one already admitted in the interest of the well-being of the schools. They have also power to make recommendations to the Inspector-General of Education regarding the appointments, promotion, punishment, suspension, or dismissal of any member of the staff as well as the grant of leave and also of any other matters affecting the progress, efficiency and popularity of the school. In successive administration reports, the Inspector-General of Education has observed that these Committees continued to take keen interest in the welfare of the schools under their control and to help the spread of education by inducing parents to send their daughters to schools and in other ways and that their attitude towards the Department in short was one of hearty co-operation.

Home Educational Classes.

As the social customs of the majority of the people of the country prevent girls continuing at school to a standard necessary for soundness of education, some provision for the education of grown-up ladies is necessary as in the case of adults. The requirements for adult education are met by the starting of continuation or adult schools, but the difficulty in the case of women is that any continuation of education has to be taken to their very doors. Classes organised to this end are called Home Educational Classes, the essential features of which are that a retired teacher or an educated lady establishes such classes in an

approved locality and the school is under the control of a Committee composed of a few educated ladies and the course of study comprises of reading, writing, arithmetic, hygiene, drawing, rattan, knitting and needle-work and that a grant-in-aid is given to the teacher at the rate of Rs. 10 for a pupil of 1st and 2nd standards and Rs. 12 for a pupil of 3rd standard. The system in spite of the grant-in-aid has not made striking progress. At the close of 1915-16, there were classes in 4 places, the total number of ladies receiving instruction being 87. The number increased to 17 with a strength of 297 adult ladies which decreased to 13 at the end 1918-19 with a corresponding reduction in strength to 194 pupils. The Mahilasēvā Samāja, Bangalore, which came into existence as an un-aided institution, was subsequently made an aided institution, maintained Home Educational classes and turned out very good work under the management of an efficient and influential Committee of ladies.

With the increase in the number of institutions during the last 6 years and the provision of a special inspecting agency and the improvement in the scale of pay of female teachers, the cost of Female Education has shown a remarkable increase rising from Rs. 301,584 in the year 1915-16 to Rs. 612,712 during 1920-21 with a fair reduction of expenditure during 1920-21, the figure for the same being Rs. 510,187. The decrease is partly due to the reduction in the number of institutions and partly to the reduction of grants under some of the items in view of the financial stringency. The total cost referred to above is exclusive of the cost incurred by aided institutions.

Expenditure
incurred.

EDUCATION OF THE DEPRESSED CLASSES.

No serious attempt was made by Government to afford special facilities for the spread of education among the depressed classes in the earlier period of the history of

Early
History.

education in the State. The work of education among these communities was left entirely to Missionary enterprise and it was not till 1890 that Government undertook to provide for them. In that year, two Government schools for Holeyas were started at Huskur and Narsapur and in the next year there were, besides these two schools, 3 Mission Schools at Mysore, Anekal and Hassan which were all unaided. A few pupils were also reported to have been allowed to sit in the verandah of general schools in consideration of the prejudices of the higher castes who were reluctant to allow them to sit side by side with their boys. Ten years later in 1900-01, there were 34 Government Primary Schools, 31 Aided Schools with a strength of 2,201 boys and 322 girls. In 1910-11, the number of institutions for these communities rose to 67 Government, 35 aided and 4 unaided with a total strength of 2,492 boys and 346 girls. Considering the population of school-going age, the progress made was hardly appreciable. But with a change of attitude both in the higher castes and the community itself, there was a possibility of appreciable progress in the spread of education. In his report for 1914-15, the Inspector-General of Education observed that "the education of the Panchama and other Depressed Classes is likely to show considerable progress in the future considering that the attitude of the better classes of the Hindu community has undergone a change and has become one of philanthropic interest instead of cold negligence. It is also found that these unfortunate people have been awakening to a sense of their own degradation and in many places have taken the initiative in seeking assistance for the amelioration of their condition." Government met the desire of these classes for education in a liberal spirit. A Panchama Boarding School was established at Mysore with provision for undergoing instruction in both general and vocational subjects. The number of institutions

at the end of 1915-16 was 171 Government schools and 108 aided schools, making a total of 279 schools with a strength of 6,130 boys and 985 girls, working out to a percentage of 4·8. Regarding the progress made so far, it was observed in the quinquennial report ending with 1915-16 :—"This is not much. But considering that the movement for education among these communities is of such recent origin, the progress is satisfactory. Within the quinquennium, the schools under Government have increased from 67 to 171 and scholars in all the institutions from 2,838 to 7,115."

The liberal policy followed by Government in the matter of spread of education among the depressed classes has borne fruit in the increase in the number of institutions and of pupils attending the same. The special inducements offered, such as parental allowances, equipment allowances for clothing and purchase of books and slates and special rates of scholarships had the desired effect of stimulating these classes to avail themselves of the opportunity offered to them in an increasing extent. As a further encouragement, students of the Depressed Classes were also exempted from payment of application fees for both the Lower Secondary and S. S. L. C. Examinations for a period of 3 years. That these concessions produced the desired effect is clearly proved by the number of institutions which increased to 739 at the end of 1920-21 with a strength of 15,390 pupils of whom 1,839 were girls. Of these 739 institutions, 293 were departmental, 437 aided and 9 unaided. Subsequently, there was a fall in the total number of institutions due to the closing of some of the aided and unaided schools for reasons similar to those in the case of general schools. At the end of 1921-22, there were only 608 institutions of which 295 were departmental, 312 aided and 1 unaided with a total strength of 13,706 pupils of whom 1,670 were girls. Of these 608 institutions, 1 was a Kannada High School at Mysore, 4 were

Anglo-Vernacular Schools, 6 Kannada Middle Schools and 597 Primary Schools.

Panchama
Boarding
School at
Mysore.

To provide for mofussil Panchama students with boarding and lodging arrangements, the Panchama Middle School at Mysore was converted into a Boarding School with provision for industrial training in mat-weaving, boot and shoe making, cloth-weaving, leather-stitching, tailoring, gardening and practical agriculture, carpentry and smithy. The strength of the institution rose from 30 in 1915-16 to 55 in 1917-18. The industrial section was worked at a profit and the school earned a reputation for weaving and leather-stitching which attracted a large number of pupils from other Districts to learn the trades in a systematic manner.

The year 1918-19 marked an epoch in the history of the institution for it was raised to a Kannada High School with English classes up to the Lower Secondary grade. It had at the end of the year 1918-19, 7 classes and 172 pupils but nearly 100 candidates had to be refused admission for want of room. The strength steadily increased to 225 at the close of 1920-21 and stood at 183 at the end of 1921-22 of which 9 were in High School classes and 174 in the A.-V. and Vernacular Classes.

The Boarding Home is under a strong Committee of Management and had 42 boarders on the rolls during 1916-17. As there was a rush for admission, the provision was found inadequate and was increased to 52 and subsequently to 200. The Home was managed very economically and notwithstanding the high price of good grains, the cost per boarder per month came to only Rs. 6-6-9 including the cost of establishment and Rs. 5-2-0 without it. The Secretary to the Managing Committee is the Superintendent of the institution and he is provided with quarters on the premises. Besides the Superintendent, who is a Panchama graduate, another

graduate belonging to the same community was added to the staff. The institution maintains two scout troops and the students took a prominent part in the Panchama Conference held in the District. The institution is also editing a journal styled " Adi Dravida Patrika " which has served to disseminate knowledge of the working of the Institute among the literate Panchamas in the State and others interested in their spirit. The establishment of a Savings Association to encourage thrift, a debating society and a reading room are a few of the varied activities of the institute. The institution has served as a model for similar institutions both in and outside the State.

As a single Boarding School at Mysore was not sufficient to provide for the needs of the entire community, Government considered it necessary to establish one more such school in a central place where it was likely to prove popular and sanctioned a school at Tumkur with provision for general education up to the Lower Secondary stage and industrial training in leather-stitching, carpentry, tailoring and gardening. The school was opened on the 23rd August 1918 with 16 students on the rolls and the number increased with the popularity of institutions to 60 during 1921-22. To enable the Kannada Lower Secondary students to take to English education, special English classes were opened and the first batch of students for the English Lower Secondary Examination were sent in 1921-22. The industries taught in the school were worked at a profit, the work turned out in the carpentry and tailoring sections being very satisfactory. A scout troop was formed in connection with the institution which distinguished itself by winning a cup at the First Aid Competition held at Mysore. Besides, the school organised exhibitions and demonstrations during the District Conferences in 1919-20 and 1920-21. The school is under the management of a Committee of official and

Panchama
Boarding
School at
Tumkur.

non-official gentlemen with the Deputy Commissioner as President.

Panchama
Boarding
School at
Chikmagalur.

In pursuance of the local demand for a Panchama Boarding School of the type of the school at Mysore, the Panchama Primary School started at Chikmagalur in 1916 under the Compulsory Education scheme was converted into a Boarding School in July 1918 with provision for teaching English and free boarding and lodging for 12 students. The strength of the school during 1918-19 was 16 in the English classes and 53 in the Vernacular classes, but for want of adequate provision and accommodation the number of boarders in the school was limited to 12. To meet the increasing demand for admission, the limit of the Boarding Home was raised to 24 and subsequently to 44. As the school had reached its full strength and was turning out good work, the Inspector-General of Education recommended that it should be raised to the status of a *pukku* A.-V. School with industrial training. Till 1921-22, the highest standard taught in the school was the 3rd English class with all the Primary and infant classes attached to it, but in that year the English 4th class was also opened. The number of students on the roll during 1921-22 was 59. A weaving class has been started in connection with the school, but it has not yet been started for want of accommodation.

Panchama
Boarding
Home at
Bangalore.

Government have sanctioned the opening of a Boarding Home at Bangalore for the benefit of these pupils at a recurring expenditure of Rs. 2,820 and a non-recurring expenditure of Rs. 500 for equipment. The number of students to be admitted is limited to 12. A Committee has been constituted for making the initial arrangements for the opening and conduct of the Boarding Home.

In the year 1921-22, there were 32 Lambani Schools with a strength of 610. Out of these 32 schools, 16 were departmental and 16 aided. There were also four schools for Hill tribes, five for Kunbis and three for Wod-dars with a total strength of 224.

Lambanis
and other
depressed
classes.

One of the steps adopted by the department to facilitate the Panchama students to take to higher education and also to improve their habits of life was that of admission to general schools. Government in their Order dated 29th November 1918 have declared their policy in this important matter, in the following terms :—

Admission of
Panchamas
to General
Schools.

“ Government cannot uphold the view that any one shall be excluded from public schools on the ground of caste as schools maintained from the public revenues are intended for the benefit of all classes of people in the State in the same way as Hospitals, Courts of Law, Railways and other public institutions. The unreasonable social prejudices in such matters have been wearing away with the spread of enlightened ideas in the advanced communities and the rise in the standards of social life of the Depressed Classes. Government are gratified to note that, in some parts of the State, students of these classes were freely admitted to schools and in some of them allowed to mix freely with the students of other castes. Any retro-grade step calculated to revive the dying opposition to the legitimate rights of all castes to enjoy the benefits of such public institutions has to be deprecated. The spirit of intolerance displayed by certain classes of people at Sringeri in setting up the agitation against admission of Halepyka students therefore deserves no sympathy. Whenever a school is opened as a protest against the admission of pupils of any community in the public schools, the promoters of such movement should be given clearly to understand that the institution concerned will not be entitled to any grant-in-aid or other concessions from Government but recognition should not be withheld unless the prescribed standards have not been maintained.”

In pursuance of the above orders, a circular was issued to all the inspecting officers of the Department that no pupil should be excluded from public schools on grounds of caste or creed. The result of the circular was that a number of students of not only the Brahmin community but of the other communities as well were withdrawn from Government schools and separate schools started. As observed above, such schools were recognised in the beginning only for examination purposes, but no grant-in-aid was sanctioned by Government. But in deference to various representations subsequently made, Government have been pleased to revise the provision in the grant-in-aid code so as to admit of grants being sanctioned to such institutions if they are found to be otherwise eligible. The Panchamas took advantage of the opportunity offered to them and entered many of the general schools for instruction. The number of such students during 1919-20 was 3,144. Opposition from local citizens to Panchama admission has been fast vanishing with the distance of time, especially after clothing allowances were given to these pupils to enable them to go to schools decently clad.

Backward
Class
Scholarships.

The development of education among the Backward and Depressed classes has been facilitated by the grant of scholarships on a liberal scale. The idea of associating stipends almost entirely as a reward for merit irrespective of the pecuniary means of the pupils could not hold its own in an atmosphere of mass education and therefore it was felt as an imperative necessity, if education had to spread among the masses, that a scheme should be devised making liberal provision for the award of scholarships to help them to avail themselves of the benefits of education. With this object in view, His Highness the Maharaja was graciously pleased, in 1917, to sanction an annual grant of Rupees one lakh for

awarding scholarships to communities backward in education, and the Depressed classes occupying as they did the lowest level in respect of literacy were shown special consideration in so far as a sum of Rs. 15,000 was earmarked out of this amount for their benefit and the amount distributed at the rate of Rs. 6,000, Rs. 4,800 and Rs. 4,200 for Primary, Vernacular Lower Secondary and Industrial education. As the demand for English education among the community grew and applications for scholarships increased in numbers, Government were pleased to sanction a separate allotment of Rs. 10,000 which was subsequently raised to Rs. 15,000 for grant of scholarships for Panchamas studying in English classes. Separate provision has also been made for scholarships for girls of the Depressed classes under the Girls' Scholarship Scheme, at rates rising from Rs. 3 in the I to III classes to Rs. 10 in the VI form, the total amount per annum being Rs. 5,000.

The existing scheme did not provide for scholarships for the infant vernacular class while the number of scholarships available in the remaining vernacular classes was only 350. As a majority of the pupils of the Depressed classes are in the lowest stages of instruction, it has been felt that a number of scholarships should be made tenable in these grades and orders accordingly have been issued to institute 500 scholarships of the value of 8 annas per mensem in the infant I vernacular classes and to increase, from 350 to 600, the number of scholarships in the other vernacular classes. As regards the English classes, the existing scheme provides for 310, 95 and 23 scholarships in the A.-V., High School and Entrance classes respectively. Having regard to the actual requirements, with reference to the number of pupils of the Depressed classes undergoing English education, it has been considered necessary to reduce the number of scholarships and fix them at 225 in the A.-V. classes, 45

in High School classes and 10 in the Entrance classes, the value of these being, however, fixed at a higher rate than in the case of Backward class scholarships of corresponding grades of education, so that it may be sufficient to meet the needs of the pupils. The Inspector-General of Education has been empowered to re-appropriate lapses in any grade for awarding a larger number of scholarships in other grades according to actual requirements.

EDUCATION OF THE DEFECTIVES.

Government
Policy
outlined.
School for
Deaf and
Dumb at
Mysore.

The education of the defectives, such as, the deaf, the mute and the blind is a problem of national concern and though the Government of Mysore have not started schools entirely maintained from State funds, they are liberally subsidising an institution maintained exclusively for these sections of people in the City of Mysore. There are two sections in the above institution, one for the deaf and the mute and the other for the blind. The deaf pupils are trained in lip reading and sense culture to begin with, write simple words to dictation and do simple addition in the higher stage and read from books and work out sums on simple subtraction and multiplication in the senior stage. Industries such as weaving, rattan work, tailoring and knitting are also taught. The blind section has three classes attached to it, *viz.*, preparatory, junior and senior, the curriculum from the lowest to the highest class being suitably drawn up. The pupils begin with the Braille alphabet, have reading and arithmetic in the junior stage and specialise in music and reading of Kannada classical poetry in the senior stage. Some of the pupils have shown remarkable aptitude for music and attained proficiency in the art sufficient to earn an independent living. The institution has earned for itself a very wide reputation which has attracted defectives from the various parts of India.

In 1921-22, there were 6 students from outside the State, 2 from the Bombay Presidency, 3 from the Madras Presidency and 1 from His Exalted Highness the Nizam's Dominions. In addition to the general and vocational classes, a Normal section was also opened in this institution with a view to train men to take up the work of teaching the deaf and the blind and the section started its work with 4 students, 2 from the State who were given stipends of Rs. 20 per mensem and 2 from the sister State of Baroda, who after the completion of their training here were employed in that State to teach the blind.

A Boarding Home is attached to the institution which had a strength of 33 in 1921-22.

EDUCATION OF EUROPEANS AND EURASIANS.

A study of the figures for the education of Europeans and Eurasians shows that there is apparently a great fall between the years before the Rendition and in the years thereafter. This is due to the fact that in the year 1882, the Director of Public Instruction in Mysore was relieved of the educational work of the Civil and Military Station. It is nearly correct to state that the history of education of Europeans and Eurasians in the State ends with that period, for, the number of schools and scholars seeking education in departmental schools is exceedingly small. For those Europeans and Eurasians that live in the State, however, and who seek education here, adequate provision has been made.

Position
before and
after
Rendition.

There were 4 schools in 1896-97 with 95 pupils in them. Including pupils in institutions, the total number receiving instruction was 133. With additions and decreases from time to time at Ooregum, Whitefield and among Girls' Schools, the number at the end of 1910-11 was 7 schools. Some of these schools, though maintained

Number and
strength of
Institutions.

exclusively for them, admit also students of other nationalities, while some of their students pursue their studies in the general schools. The number and strength of the schools as also the total number of the students of the community studying in the various schools was as given below :—

Year	Number of Schools	Strength		Total	Europeans and Anglo-Indians in other schools	Total Europeans and Anglo-Indians under instruction
		Euro-peans and Anglo-Indians	Others			
1916-17...	5	526	68	594	256	792
1917-18...	4	477	92	569	60	537
1918-19...	4	415	73	488	73	488
1919-20...	5	393	87	480	98	431
1920-21...	4	363	134	497	38	401
1921-22...	3	441	50	491	54	495

One of the schools, *viz.*, the Nandidrug Camp School, Kolar Gold Fields, originally prepared candidates for the Junior Cambridge Examinations but adopted the departmental curriculum in the year 1919-20 and has ever since been training pupils for the Lower Secondary examination also.

ORIENTAL STUDIES.

Sanskrit
Schools.

Sanskrit is taught in schools and colleges for general education and also in schools and colleges specially meant for the study of the language. In the general schools, it is ordinarily taken as an optional subject of instruction. Soon after the inauguration of the State policy of 1856 in regard to education, many of the Sanskrit *pāṭasālas*, opened mostly by the *Pandits*, applied for aid and it was deemed right for various reasons to encourage them. "It has long been a matter for regret," wrote the Director of Public Instruction, urging the necessity for Sanskrit education, "that the highest system of education

undesignedly tends to alienate from us the really learned men of the country and we have thus lost the co-operation of the most cultivated classes who would have rendered valuable aid in creating the vernacular literature we wish to promote." The schools were mostly conducted in *Chatrams* or in temples and the Government grant was in most cases the only income. Encouragement, however, continued to be given to those schools which were most systematically conducted on the understanding that secular knowledge such as arithmetic and studies in the vernacular language was imparted in addition. As a result of this insistence of a revision in the course of study, arithmetic up to vulgar fractions and proportion was taught in several Sanskrit Schools and Algebra in the School at Melkote.

The number of schools during the year 1921-22 was 51 distributed among the various Districts of the State, as follows :—

Their
distribution.

Bangalore	...	4	Mysore	...	12
Kolar	...	12	Hassan	...	12
Shimoga	...	3	Tumkur	...	4
Chitaldrug	...	2	Kadur	...	2

The number of students under instruction in the special Sanskrit schools belonged to the following castes :—

Castes	1921-22.	
	Boys	Girls
Brāhmin
Vaisya
Lingāyat
Other caste Hindus
Jain
Total

1,323	52
36	...
83	1
129	6
55	13

1,626 72

Remodelling
of the courses
of study.

The backward condition of Sanskrit Education in general is to a great extent attributed to the well-known fact that mere Sanskrit learning according to old methods no longer attracts students in any appreciable number owing to the difficulty of turning it to practical account in after life. Broadly speaking, nowhere in the civilized world is education acquired and pursued without the objective of a livelihood. If this is the bed-rock of truth in regard to other systems and modes of learning, it is eminently so with reference to the various stages of Sanskrit Education. The remedy, therefore, lay in recasting the scheme of studies in such a manner as to provide for a study of the elementary subjects usually taught in ordinary schools in Kannada or preferably in English along with the study of Sanskrit. To determine on what lines Sanskrit education in general should be remodelled so as to conceive real scholarship and attract deserving students, Government appointed a Committee who after mature deliberation submitted their recommendations, the chief of which were that an elementary course of Sanskrit should be made compulsory in the IV and V Forms in the case of Hindu students and optional in the VI Form ; that subjects of general education, such as, Arithmetic, Geography, History and Elementary Science should form an integral part of the curricula of the Primary and Secondary Sanskrit schools, and English language up to the Matriculation standard part of the Secondary education in Sanskrit schools ; that a special Board of Management should be formed to control Sanskrit studies in the exclusive Sanskrit schools and colleges and conduct public examinations in them ; and that the Mysore and the Bangalore Sanskrit Colleges should be eventually affiliated to the Mysore University. No action was called for on the first of these recommendations as effect had already been given to the course suggested by making Sanskrit an alternative subject both in the School Final classes

and in the second language branch of the University. Government considered that a liberalisation of education on the lines suggested above was a desirable improvement and approved of the recommendations regarding the revision of the courses and sanctioned their introduction into the Sanskrit schools of the State with such alterations as might be considered necessary in the individual circumstances of the schools. The recommendations of the Committee to revise the courses of studies in the Colleges on the lines of the Siromani course of the Madras University with certain changes necessitated by local conditions and to the introduction of the higher course of post-graduate study or a Mahāvidwān course which would give the students a mastery over the special subject were also approved. The University Council who were consulted on the question of opening a oriental faculty in the University expressed themselves in favour of postpoing the establishment of such a faculty, but approved of the other recommendations. A Board was also constituted for the purpose of conducting examinations and making all necessary arrangements connected therewith and to watch generally the course of instruction in the Colleges and to recommend any change which might be required in the course of studies or textbooks prescribed. The revision of these courses of study gave a great impetus to Sanskrit education by placing it on a sounder basis. By the combination of English and Sanskrit, an opportunity was afforded to cultivate ancient and modern knowledge side by side. The importance of a working knowledge of English cannot be minimised as it is very necessary to acquaint one at first hand with the results of modern research in the field of oriental studies.

The Mysore Sanskrit College was started in September 1876 under the name of Sarasvathi Prasada for the

Sanskrit
College at
Mysore.

purpose of instructing Brāhman students in *Vēda* and *Vēdāngas*. As the *Pātasāla* developed in strength, it was elevated to the status of a College. In October 1883 when the affairs of the Palace Charitable Institutions were reorganised, the College was assigned a substantial grant out of the funds which became available by the abolition of various feeding *Chatrams* which had existed in the neighbourhood of the Mysore City. In October 1892, a grant of Rs. 6,500 was made from the Education budget and the total amount earmarked for the College was increased to Rs. 13,722. In September 1917, the courses of studies and the scheme of Vidwat Examinations in the College were revised by the Government on the recommendation of a Special Committee appointed to consider the question of Sanskrit Education in the State, and the College staff was further strengthened. Out of the total cost, a sum of Rs. 7,223, being the amount of the initial allotment from the *Chatram* savings, is still contributed from the Palace Muzrai Funds and the balance met from the Education budget. Consistently, however, with the original object of the Institution, the subjects of study in the College have been confined to the *Vēdas* and *Vēdānga Sāstras* and the staff has altogether been composed of orthodox Brāhman Pandits, while the management is vested in a Committee of which the Assistant Secretary to His Highness the Maharaja in charge of Palace Establishment is the President and the Palace Dharmādhikāries and the Muzrai Superintendent are among the Members.

Bangalore
Sanskrit
College.

Prior to 1870, some local Pandits in Bangalore were maintaining private schools where they taught *Kāvya* to poor Brāhman boys. These schools were with mutual consent amalgamated into one *Pātasāla* for which a grant-in-aid of Rs. 20 per mensem was sanctioned by the Education Department. In 1885, the *Pātasāla* was

taken over by the City Municipality under the name of Vāṇi Vidyā Pāṭasāla and in the following year, *Alankāra*, *Vēda* and *Yōga* were added to the subjects of study. Till 1888, the institution consisted of two Departments, the *Sāstra* and the *Kāvya*, which were combined in November 1889 and the Institution was named Sanskrit College, Bangalore, and placed under the management of a Committee. The course of study was further supplemented by the addition of Tarka, Vyākaraṇa and Vēdānta and arrangements were also made to impart instruction in Kanarese, Mathematics, History, Geography, Agriculture and Hygiene. The old Arsenal building in the Fort was secured for the habitation of the College and when it was removed to the new buildings in 1896, the name was changed to its present designation, "Chāmarājēndra Sanskrit College," in memory of His Highness the late Chāmarājēndra Wodeyar Bahadur, G.C.S.I.

When the Institution was taken over under Municipal management and raised to the status of a College, the Education grant was raised to Rs. 100 a month and the Srīngēri and Parakāla Mutts and the Municipality contributed Rs. 100, Rs. 30 and Rs. 50 respectively. But the two Mutts stopped subsequently the payment of their contributions and the deficiency had to be covered by grants from other Muzrai funds. The Special Committee appointed to consider the question of Sanskrit Education in the State proposed that the Mysore Sanskrit College should be made the chief seat of advanced Sanskrit education and that it would be sufficient if the Sanskrit College, Bangalore, was equipped only for the teaching of the Sāhitya to the highest standard and affiliated to the Mysore College. These recommendations were approved by Government and the curricula of study accordingly revised. The Sāstra classes having been abolished, Sanskrit Education in the College was confined to

Sāhitya, Vēda and Prayōga. In 1917, just prior to the abolition of the Sāstra classes, the total strength of the several classes was 114 but with the limitation in the course of the studies, the strength of the school declined, the actual number studying in 1919-20 being 39, 25 in Vēda classes and 14 in Prayōga classes.

Admission of
students
of all
communities
to Sanskrit
Colleges.

The question of the admission of students of all communities without distinction of caste or creed into the Sanskrit Colleges of Bangalore and Mysore which came up in the April Session of the Representative Assembly in 1918 was referred to the Board of Sanskrit Studies for opinion. The Board recommended that in view of the traditions attaching to the Maharaja's Sanskrit College, Mysore, as the centre of orthodox learning and of the fact that it is the only institution of the State in which all Vēdic and Shāstraic subjects are taught, a change in the existing system would not be of advantage either to the non-Brāhman students desirous of admission or to Sanskrit learning in general, but that non-Brāhman candidates might be admitted into the Bangalore Sanskrit College as an experimental measure on the condition suggested by the Committee of the College, *viz.*, that separate accommodation was made available for holding the Adhyana and Prayōga classes. At this time, the question of reducing the status of the Bangalore Sanskrit College to that of a High School in view of the paucity of students in the College classes and of making further improvements in the Mysore Sanskrit College was referred to a Special Committee and the subject of the admission of the non-Brāhman students to Sanskrit Colleges was also referred to that Committee for opinion. The Special Committee recommended that the College at Mysore may continue as the centre of ancient and orthodox Sanskrit learning as heretofore, open to Brāhmans only, and that the Bangalore College may be

thrown open to all classes of “uttama” Hindus for study of all subjects except those coming under the category of *Vēda*, *Vēdānta* and *Vēdāṅga* and that separate accommodation may be provided in the College for instruction of *Vēdic* and allied subjects to Brāhmanas only.

In view of the importance of the subject and of its interest to several communities in the State, the Government in their notification dated 29th May 1922 invited the opinion of the public on the recommendations of the Committee. Of the opinions received, a majority was from members of the Virasaiva community who represented that students of that community have a special claim for admission to the Sanskrit Colleges and to all branches of study as many eminent Sanskrit poets, scholars and writers on philosophy and religion have come from their community. They claimed that the *Vēdas* and the *Upanishads* form the basis of their religion. They also proposed that Virasaiva pandits should be appointed as *Adhyāpakas* in the Colleges. The Jain community urged a similar claim and represented that facilities should be afforded to all communities to learn the tenets of their religion and that therefore the courses of study in the Sanskrit Colleges may be divided into two groups, the *Vēda* group open to Dwijas and the other, *viz.*, *Sāhitya*, *Vyākaraṇa* and *Tarka* to all high caste pupils, Jain pandits being also appointed to teach the principles of Jainism and Jain philosophy and the other *Adhyāpakas* teaching the other subjects without distinction of caste. Members of other non-Brāhman communities, such as, Ārya Kshatriyas and Ārya Vaisyas were also unanimous that the Sanskrit College should be thrown open to all communities in view of the cultural value of Sanskrit education and of the fact that the institutions are maintained out of public funds. The Ādi Drāvidas also represented that as they believe in Brāhmanical teachings and in the *Vēdas* they may also be admitted to these

Colleges. On the other hand, members of the Brāhman community took exception to the recommendation of the Committee to throw open the Bangalore College to non-Brāhmans on the ground that this institution was originally started by a few Brāhman Pandits and was subsequently taken over by Government and that the position of Government is that of a trustee. Several deputations of members of non-Brāhman communities placed their views on the subject before Government and the question was also discussed at length at the Representative Assembly at its Dasara Session in October 1922. After a careful consideration of the matter in all its aspects, Government in their Order No. Camp. E. Edn. 81-20—Edn., dated 10th June 1924, have directed that the scheme of studies in the Chāmarājendra Sanskrit College, Bangalore, be suitably modified and the institution thrown open for the admission of all communities irrespective of caste or creed and transferred to the control of the Education Department. They also consider that for some years to come at least all the demands for higher Sanskrit studies and culture will be adequately met by opening the Bangalore Sanskrit College to all communities and reorganising its courses of studies in a suitable manner adapted to the purpose in view. As facilities exist in schools all over the State for Sanskrit studies in the general curriculum of schools, Government do not consider it necessary to retain the preparatory and primary classes of the Chāmarājendra Sanskrit College. The classes have accordingly been abolished. Government have also appointed a suitable Committee to submit proposals for the revision of the curricula and courses of studies.

TECHNICAL EDUCATION.

Early History. The earliest institution in the State for any kind of technical education was the School of Engineering

established in 1862 which was intended to train men for employment to the subordinate Engineering services. It was developed to an institution of a higher class in 1875 so as to train men for the superior as well as the subordinate Engineering services and was reported to have turned out a high class of students, because some of those that received instruction in it rose to high positions in the services of the State. It had however a short life as it was abolished in 1883-84 and the only institution in the State for several years thereafter, in which men were trained for the lower services of the Public Works Department, was the school that had been established by Rao Bahadur Arcot Narayanaswamy Mudaliar in the Civil and Military Station, Bangalore.

Industrial education in the State made a beginning five years after the Engineering School was abolished. The foreign missions in the State had some industrial schools in connection with the orphanages started by them but an industrial school under Government supervision was first started in Hassan in August 1889. Next the Industrial School at Mysore was started in 1892, and had classes for instruction in Carpentry and Rattan-work. A number of scholarships were also instituted to encourage the study of subjects for which no provision existed in the State. As the facilities then provided were quite inadequate to meet the needs of the State, it was considered that one of the most pressing of the reforms to be undertaken was to find out methods of imparting education which shall be of more practical use, not only to those who wish to begin their careers as Government servants or teachers in schools, but to all, who wish to engage themselves in the numerous professions and industries so vital for the prosperous development of the country. A scheme of technical education was sanctioned in April 1903 and the object of it was not the imparting of any ideal, theoretical or scientific

course of instruction, but the teaching of industries and trade on improved methods as are adopted to supply the requirements of the people, such as, carpentry, weaving, silk-reeling, iron work, rattan work, etc., and to turn out every year a number of pupils fully equipped with the means of earning their livelihood by increasing the efficiency of their technical ability. The impetus given by the above scheme was considerable, for the number of schools increased within seven years from seven to twenty and the number of scholars from 422 to 1,234. But though the progress effected under the scheme of 1903 had been good, it was felt that a thorough systematisation of industrial education was necessary so as to conform more largely to the practical needs of modern conditions. In 1910, the Dewan addressing the Representative Assembly, said: "in the matter of industrial education there is reason to think that in our industrial schools the training given could be made much more systematic and thorough than it is at present, if a comprehensive programme of instruction were prepared and prescribed with graduated courses of instruction conceived on a definite plan." With this object, a Committee consisting of experienced officers of the Public Works and Education Departments was appointed with Sir M. Visvesvaraya, then Chief Engineer in the State, as its President, and the proposals of the Committee were that a College of Technology should be started in Bangalore to give higher instruction in technical, industrial and commercial matters; that the proposed Chamarajendra Technical Institute, Mysore, should have three sections, Engineering, Industrial and Commercial; that the existing industrial schools in the State should be improved by the appointment of whole-time Superintendents and by the provision of better equipment; that three more Industrial Schools should be started and a number of scholarships, *viz.*, 420, should be instituted

for being granted to students in these schools; and that more scholarships should be awarded to encourage the study of technical subjects in foreign countries. Government sanctioned in May 1913 the establishment of the Mechanical Engineering School, Bangalore, the formation of the Chamarajendra Technical Institute, Mysore, and the Government Commercial School, Bangalore. The rules governing the scheme of foreign scholarships were also revised with a view to afford opportunities for a greater number of candidates to take advantage of foreign training in industrial, commercial and technical subjects. Further, examinations in technical subjects were instituted and a Board constituted to conduct the examinations, success in which was regarded as sufficient qualification for employment in subordinate services of the Public Works Department. Examinations of the Elementary grade, in commercial subjects, were instituted in 1913 and of the Secondary grade, in 1914. By an order of 1915, Government instituted examinations of Advanced grade in the same subjects. The number of schools and scholars at the end of 1915-16 was 35 and 21,117, respectively. The total expenditure on technical education during the same year was Rs. 1,39,053, while the amount spent on scholarships tenable in India and foreign countries was Rs. 23,958 and Rs. 21,731 respectively.

The provision made by the State for technical education may be dealt with under the following heads:—

Later
Progress.

- (1) Industrial Schools ;
- (2) Engineering Schools ;
- (3) Commercial Schools ;
- (4) Scholarships tenable in India and in foreign countries.

The administration of these schools was originally vested in the Inspector-General of Education, but it was realised that the Director of Industries and Commerce would

Industrial
schools.

be better able to co-ordinate the working of these institutions with reference to the actual requirements of industries in the State and it was therefore ordered that these institutions should be transferred to his control with effect from 1st July 1922. The number of schools and pupils undergoing instruction at the end of 1921-22 were twenty-four and 1,051, respectively. Of the total number of schools, thirteen were directly under Government management of which seven were situated at District Head-quarters, *viz.*, Mysore, Shimoga, Chikmagalur, Chitaldrug and Hassan, and the rest in taluk Head-quarters, *viz.*, Sagar, Chennapatna, Hole-Narsipur, Dodballapur, Molakalmuru and Chiknaikanhalli.

Chamarajendra Technical Institute.

In addition to the Engineering and Commercial sections, an industrial section is also attached to the Institution. A general education class attached to the Institution is being attended by a large number of students. The industrial section was developed by erecting a saw mill and constructing a seasoning kiln so as to remove the difficulty of securing seasoned-out timber. The strength of the school during 1921-22 was 271, of which 7 were Europeans, 13 Indian Christians, 55 Muhammadans, 45 Brahmans, 7 Kshatriyas, 6 Vaisyas, 20 Lingayets, 124 other high caste Hindus, one Jain and one Parsi.

Industrial Schools for Girls.

At the close of the year 1921-22, there were four Industrial Schools for girls, *viz.*, the Industrial class maintained in the Maharani's High School, Wesleyan Mission Orphanage at Hassan and two schools in Mysore, one maintained by the Depressed Class Mission, the other being St. Ignatius Industrial School. The total strength of these four schools was 166 in 1919-20 and 149 in 1921-22.

At first, instruction in Engineering was given in two schools in the State—Civil Engineering in the Engineering section of the Chamarajendra Technical Institute, Mysore, and Mechanical Engineering in the Mechanical Engineering School, Bangalore. As the Engineering School at Mysore was not an integral part of the Chamarajendra Technical Institute, Government laid down in their orders on the Education Memorandum that the Civil Engineering School should be transferred to Bangalore and amalgamated with the Mechanical Engineering School. The amalgamation was given effect to from 1st July 1922 and the name of the latter Institution changed to “The School of Engineering.”

Engineering
Schools.

In the Civil Engineering School, instruction is given in the following subjects :—

Civil
Engineering
School.

- (1) Building materials and construction ;
- (2) Hydraulics and Irrigation Works ;
- (3) Surveying and levelling ;
- (4) Drawing ;
- (5) Applied mechanics, carpentry, bridge work, earth-work and road-making.

The system of supplementing class room instruction by excursions to important Engineering works forms a good feature of the school. The students of the Senior Sub-Overseers class are taken on a visit to Engineering works both in the State and in the Madras Presidency and the practical knowledge which such excursions provide has been of great benefit to the students.

The students were originally trained for the Madras Technical examination, attendance at which was declared optional in 1915 and an examination conducted by the Board specially constituted in the State is now the final examination.

Examina-
tions.

Mechanical
Engineering
School.

The school was brought into existence by an order of May 1913 and imparted instruction in the principles and practice of the following :—

- (1) Management and care of steam and oil engines ;
- (2) Management, care and erection of machinery and working of mills ;
- (3) Electrical work including operation ;
- (4) Driving of motor cars ;
- (5) Carpentry, including cabinet-making.

In the year 1914-15, three additional classes were opened for the training of :—

- (1) Industrial School teachers ;
- (2) Permanent Way Inspectors ;
- (3) Telegraphic Signallers and men for subordinate places in the Traffic Department.

Evening classes in Technical Drawing, Motor Mechanics, Electrical wiring were also opened for the training of men engaged in professional or other work during the day. But these classes were recommended to be abolished as they were not taken much advantage of by the type of workmen for whom they were primarily intended. In Electrical and Mechanical Engineering, there were two grades of teaching, higher and lower, and two corresponding sections of each were maintained, while in Motor driving there was provision only for instruction in the lower grade. The school is very popular on account of its usefulness and from year to year the number of applications for admission has increased. The short-time motor classes are specially attractive and only a limited number of students are being admitted for want of sufficient equipment.

Batches of students who finish their training course in the school are sent to various institutions for practical work.

Commercial education has only in the last few years found recognition in India. In this State also, commercial education is of so recent growth that as understood to include all education which prepares specifically for business careers is yet to be developed. The first Commercial School in Bangalore was an aided school started by a private gentleman in April 1897. The fees charged were so low that it was necessary to render services to the school without any remuneration. Correspondence, Book-keeping and Short-hand were taught until 1901. In 1901-02, Commercial Geography and Banking were added to the curriculum. The school was at first held three days in the week from 6 to 8 P. M. and from 1902 every evening. In January 1902, a grant-in-aid of Rs. 20 per month was sanctioned to the school. The next Commercial School to be opened was Hardwicke Commercial School, Mysore. It began work in 1906 and gave instruction in Type-writing, Book-keeping, Short-hand, Commercial Correspondence and Commercial Geography. A grant of Rs. 600 was sanctioned for this school in 1905-06 towards the cost of the necessary apparatus.

Commercial
Schools.

At the beginning of the year 1916-17, there were four Commercial Schools, two Government and two aided—the Bangalore Government Commercial School, the Commercial Section of the Chamaraajendra Technical Institute, the aided Commercial School, Bangalore and the Hardwicke Commercial School, Mysore. The total strength of these institutions was 355 of which fourteen were girls. The subjects in which instruction was given in these schools were :—

Number of
schools,
strength and
courses of
instruction.

- (1) Banking and Currency,
- (2) Book-keeping and Accounts,
- (3) Commercial Correspondence and Office routine,
- (4) Short-hand,

- (5) Type-writing,
- (6) Political Economy,
- (7) Marathi, and
- (8) Kannada.

For the benefit of merchants and business men who had no knowledge of English, a Vernacular section was opened in the Commercial School at Bangalore; provision being made for teaching in Tamil, Telugu, Marathi and Gujarati. Four Vernacular Commercial classes were opened during 1916-17 at Chintamani, Tirthahalli, Davangere and Nanjangud. As the demand for commercial knowledge increased, due to the various activities inaugurated by the Mysore Economic Conference, the Inspector-General of Education requested sanction for the opening of Commercial classes in connection with the High Schools in the State at a recurring cost of Rs. 1,936 per mensem for each school. Government sanctioned the recommendation and directed that three schools may be opened in the year 1918-19 and the rest in 1919-20 and that provision might be made in connection with these classes for the delivery of public lectures in Account-keeping and in the standard practice of rules to be observed in trade businesses. Accordingly, Commercial Schools were opened in 1917-18 in the High Schools of Chennapatna, Hassan and Chikmagalur and arrangements made for the delivery of lectures of an advanced character by specialists on commercial subjects—Economic Science, Statistics, Public Administration, Banking, Joint-Stock enterprise including Co-operation and other allied subjects. A general Board was formed for the purpose of conducting these examinations and the course of studies was also revised. The main changes in the revised rules were the introduction of Pass and Honours courses in lieu of the existing three grades, *viz.*, Elementary, Intermediate and Advance, the reclassification of the subjects of study, which however remained the same, into nine

groups of one or two years' course in each according to the importance of the subject, the omission of the provision for the grant of free studentships in view of the low rate of fees that was levied and the introduction of a public examination for the Vernacular branch of Commercial education. The details regarding the subjects, courses of study and the nature of public examinations are as given below :—

Sl. No.	Subject	Course of Study	Nature of Public Examinations
1	Accountancy and Auditing ...	2 years.	A Junior examination at the end of the last year course of study and a Senior examination at the end of the 2nd year course.
2	Banking and Economics ...	2 years.	Do
3	Methods of Machinery and Business.	2 years.	Do
4	One of the following languages other than the Vernacular in which the candidate is literate up to at least the III Form standard :—Gujarati, Kannada, Tamil, Telugu and Urdu.	2 years.	Do
5	Short-hand and Type-writing.	2 years.	A Senior examination at the end of two years' course of study.
6	Commercial History ...	2 years.	Do
7	English Composition of the S. S. L. C. Standard.	2 years.	Do
8	Commercial Arithmetic ...	1 year.	A Junior examination at the end of one year's course of study.
9	Economic Geography ...	1 year.	Do

The Vernacular sections were not found to be very popular among the trading classes and failed to attract sufficient number of students and were therefore done away with. The extension lectures which were a prominent feature in these classes were also discontinued from 1921-22. The number of schools at the close of 1921-22 was three—two Government and one aided—with a total strength of 185 as against four schools with a total strength of 332 in the previous year. In addition to these schools,

Commercial classes were continued to be attached to the High Schools of Tumkur, Shimoga, Hassan, Chikmagalur, Chennapatna and Davangere, where Commerce was taught as an optional subject for the S. S. L. C. examination.

Scholarships
tenable in
India and in
foreign
countries.

The various scholarships granted for training in technical subjects is dealt with in a separate section under scholarships.

The Indian
Institute of
Science.

This institution which is located in Bangalore owes its origin to the genius and munificence of the late Mr. J. N. Tata of Bombay. The original idea was to found an Indian Research University but the final form agreed upon was an Institute of Science with four Departments at first, more Departments being opened as the resources expanded. The Government of Mysore gave a site of 371 acres and made a decent contribution towards the initial expenditure. An annual grant of Rs. 30,000 was promised in the first instance for ten years, but the amount of grant later on increased to Rs. 50,000. The institution began work in July 1911 with 17 students and four Departments—General Chemistry, Organic Chemistry, Applied Chemistry and Electrical Technology.

Scholarships were awarded to some of the Mysore graduates for doing research work in different subjects in the Institute, the number being determined by the Departments of the State. The value of scholarships varied from Rs. 50 to Rs. 75 and there were six Mysore scholars doing research work in the Institute, the subjects of study being investigation of lac, wood distillation, tanning and essential oils and fats.

SCHOLARSHIPS, ENDOWMENTS AND OTHER FACILITIES.

Outline of
Government
Policy.

One of the salient features of the educational policy of the State is the grant of liberal scholarships in all stages

of instruction from the Elementary to the University course and for study in all kinds of institutions literary, technical, industrial and professional, tenable either in the schools in the State or in British India. A number of scholarships according to the requirements of the State are also awarded to scholars for undergoing training in foreign countries either in literary, technical or scientific subjects.

The backward classes, including the Muhammadans and the Depressed classes, in which the percentage of literacy is very low and other classes of people, such as Military and Palegars, have received special consideration. The scholarships awarded may be broadly classified into two categories :—

- (i) Those which are tenable in foreign countries, and
- (ii) Those which are tenable in the State or in British India.

The latter may be classified into :—

- (1) Merit Scholarships,
- (2) Backward Class Scholarships,
- (3) Technical Scholarships,
- (4) Professional Scholarships, and
- (5) Endowment Scholarships.

These are granted with a view to promote advanced scientific study, technical training and a spirit of research among the people, to train in European countries a number of young men who will follow industrial and commercial occupations which will conduce to the development of the country and also to secure for the services of the State in its several Departments young men trained in Western Universities and Colleges, imbued with a progressive spirit of the West and equipped with a first-hand knowledge of modern methods. To secure these objects, two scholarships were granted every year from the Damodar Das fund, but no rules were in force

Foreign
Scholarships.

to regulate the grant of scholarships from State Funds though some were granted on the merits of the individual applications received from time to time. The necessity for improving this scheme so as to meet adequately the present day requirements of the various Departments of the State was felt, and in 1914 Government decided to increase the number of foreign scholarships with a view to enlarge the range of subjects for training so as to comprise industrial and commercial subjects more largely, and to improve the method of selecting candidates in order to ensure the securing of the best talents in a given time. The number of scholarships to be ordinarily granted was fixed at 11—two from the Damodar Das Charity funds, four from the general revenues of the State (all free) and five from the general revenues of the State as loan scholarships to be repayable without interest ordinarily in five and in any case not more than ten years on return after the completion of the study. Condition of service for a period of not less than five years on a reasonable salary to be fixed at the sole discretion of Government is insisted upon in all the three cases, and if Government are unable to offer employment within six months after return, they are bound to waive the condition of service and allow the scholars to take employment elsewhere. Soon after these revised rules came into force, eight fresh foreign scholarships were sanctioned in each of the years 1916-17 and 1917-18, but owing to the abnormal conditions prevailing in the West on account of the Great War, none could proceed for want of necessary passport except one during the latter year.

There was, however, an improvement under the above scheme, in the number of candidates taking advantage of the scheme of scholarships in later years. But it was borne in upon Government that the foreign scholarship rules needed revision so as to enable Government to provide technical and other Departments with

sufficient number of men possessing the requisite foreign training, as the grant of scholarships was not regulated, at the time of the award to meet the requirements of the various Departments ascertained in advance. With a view to consider this and other defects in the existing scheme, Government appointed a Committee who, after a careful investigation of the various issues involved, recommended that the six scholarships (2 Damodar Das and 4 State) should be redistributed as follows :—

Three for Departmental Officers, and

Three for graduates ;

(two of the latter being reserved for candidates recommended by the Mysore University Council).

On a careful consideration of the recommendations of the Committee, the Government ordered that the number of scholarships to be awarded annually exclusive of the Loan Scholarships be fixed at four (2 Damodar Das and 2 State) one of which be set apart for the most brilliant graduate of the Mysore University, preference being given to a student taking up some branch of science, one awarded to suitable candidate belonging to one of the educationally backward classes in the State and the other two for the study of subjects to be notified from time to time. A number of brilliant graduates of the University took advantage of the opportunities offered to them and were awarded scholarships, the number of such students studying abroad during the years 1916-17, 1917-18, 1918-19, 1919-20, 1920-21 and 1921-22 being 8, 10, 15, 11, 18 and 20 respectively. Owing to financial difficulties, it was subsequently considered that there was no justification for the grant of free scholarships when drastic reductions were being made in even normal items of expenditure and that such scholarships might be granted only by way of loan in future. As two Damodar Das scholarships were awarded free every

year, Government considered that the large amount devoted towards the grant of foreign scholarship might advantageously be utilised for meeting more obligatory demands. It was accordingly ordered that scholarships debitable to State Funds should be treated as loans recoverable until further orders.

State or
British
Indian
Scholarships:
Merit
Scholarships.

Five scholarships of the value of Rs. 10 each are awarded to the first five candidates who secure the highest number of marks in the S. S. L. C. examination to enable them to prosecute their studies in the University Entrance Class.

Backward
Class
Scholarships.

With a view to spread knowledge and enlightenment among a large portion of the population of the State which is steeped in ignorance, Government sanctioned a liberal sum of one lakh of rupees for being distributed as scholarships among the backward communities. The Inspector-General of Education and the Education Committee of the Economic Conference were requested to submit proposals for the utilisation of this amount. The former suggested that the amount should be utilised to improve the general standard of literacy in the State with a view to raise the economic efficiency of the people as a whole and therefore proposed that the money should be utilised in promoting primary and secondary education among the most backward classes while the latter proposed that the bulk of the amount should be spent chiefly in promoting higher education in English so as to rouse the intellectual ambition of the relatively backward classes and give them greater opportunities to improve and qualify themselves for the public services and the higher professions. As the liberal grant-in-aid policy followed by Government had resulted in the springing up of a large number of primary schools in rural areas and as a

careful study of the statistics relating to the progress of education in the case of these communities showed that pupils began to fall off at a stage in which they had to leave their homes for continuing in the higher stages of education, Government agreed with the Education Committee that this special grant of one lakh of rupees should be for the present devoted chiefly to the award of scholarships for promoting higher education. After reserving a sum of Rs. 15,000 for the benefit of depressed classes, the amount was distributed among the different communities and for the various grades of instruction from the University to the Vernacular Lower Secondary stage. The administration of the scholarships was vested in the Education Committee and the District and Taluk Progress Committees of the Economic Conference who had power to appoint sub-committees containing representatives of the different backward classes and of important educational institutions to select the suitable candidates. Scholarships tenable in the University classes were administered by the University Council, those tenable in the University Entrance classes by the Education Committee of the Economic Conference, those in the High School Classes by the District Committees and those in the English and Vernacular Lower Secondary classes as also the special scholarships for the depressed classes by the Taluk Progress Committees. For the purpose of these scholarships, any caste, tribe or community which had less than 5 per cent of its total population literate in English was reckoned as backward and the number of scholarships in each grade was distributed among the different classes in the proportion of their population to the total population of the backward classes in the State. The share of scholarship of each community was again distributed among the districts in proportion to the school-going population of those classes in the various Districts. A general instruction was issued

to all the Committees administering the scheme that care should be taken to select candidates deserving of encouragement on the double ground of merit and poverty. The certificates provided by the Head-masters of the various educational institutions were to be considered carefully in making awards and every endeavour was to be made not only to assist pupils but also to encourage teachers in institutions to bring forward promising and deserving scholars in increasing numbers.

*Ad-Hoc
Committees.*

The backward class scholarships were awarded for two years on the principles and through the agency mentioned above. But it was soon found that the machinery designed to administer these scholarships worked very slow with the consequence that the scholarships were disbursed very late in the year, thereby frustrating the very object with which these scholarships were sanctioned. The District and Taluk Progress Committees were therefore replaced by *Ad-Hoc* Scholarship Committees constituted for each District and Taluk consisting of five members holding office for two consecutive years. The Committees empanelled solely for the purpose of awarding these scholarships worked satisfactorily and justified their existence by distributing the scholarships in time.

*Palegar
Scholarships.*

With a view to encourage the young members of the families of Palegars to receive higher education and qualify them for public service, a sum of Rs. 840 is being allotted annually for awarding scholarships to them, tenable in Colleges and High Schools of the State.

*Military
Scholarships.*

In order to provide some special inducements for higher education among the military classes so that there might be sufficient number of men who might be fit on the ground of educational qualifications for appointment and promotion to higher commissioned ranks, fees in

Government Schools for pupils of the military class studying as far as the Lower Secondary Class were abolished, only half the fee being collected in classes above that standard. A number of scholarships of the monthly value of Rs. 5 each were awarded annually for the High School course, one for each Regiment, the scholarship being awarded on the results of the Lower Secondary Examination to the boy who stood highest among the pupils of that Regiment. By way of further encouragement to children of soldiers and non-combatants having a claim for special consideration from the State by reason of their being employed in active military service in connection with the Great War, Government sanctioned scholarships in Lower Secondary Schools, the rates being the same as those prescribed for the backward class scholarships with freeships attached and a fixed percentage of scholarships in High Schools and Colleges to be exclusively reserved for such students according to the scale to be approved by Government from time to time with reference to the number of such pupils and without prejudice to their competency for open scholarships. It was also stipulated that, if the ordinary scholarships did not cover hostel charges when pupils resided in them, an addition amounting to one-third of the scholarships should be made to meet such charges. The above concessions were not considered adequate by the Mysore Soldiers' Board who recommended that each child of every person employed in the Mysore Regiment should be granted scholarships, but Government, after carefully considering the proposal, expressed themselves not in favour of granting scholarships to every child as a matter of course but laid down that three scholarships of each class up to and inclusive of the Middle School standard for each of the Regiments might be instituted to be awarded to the poor and deserving students from the Regiments and ten scholarships in each of the High

School Classes and five in the Entrance Classes for all the Regiments, the value of the scholarships being the same as the backward class scholarships of the corresponding grade. As a further concession, a provision of Rs. 150 was also directed to be made to supply students who were unable to purchase books free of cost. During the year 1921-22, 135 scholarships ranging from Rs. 2 to Rs. 10 were awarded, the total expenditure being Rs. 6,936 and these were tenable without prejudice to the competency of the scholars in these schools for all open scholarships.

Technical
Scholarships.

Technical scholarships varying from Rs. 15 to 20 were awarded to the Mysore students who prosecuted their studies in Madras, Bombay or other places outside the State in industrial and commercial subjects for which no provision existed in the State. During the year 1916-17, there were in all 37 scholarship-holders of whom 12 were studying in the Victoria Jubilee Technical Institute, Bombay, 11 in the Sydenham College of Commerce, Bombay, 9 in the School of Arts, Madras, and 3 in the Sir J. J. School of Arts, Bombay. The following table shows the number of scholarships and the total value of the same during the years 1916-17 to 1920-21 :—

Year				Number of Scholarships	Total amount
					Rs. a. p.
1916-17	37	5,995 9 4
1917-18	29	6,199 12 7
1918-19	30	7,466 14 8
1919-20	26	18,315 9 7
1920-21	18	9,457 0 0

The administration of these technical scholarships tenable in schools in British India was vested in the Inspector-General of Education and the obvious disadvantage incidental to such a system necessitated a modification of the rules so as to secure a more direct

relationship between the scholar and his future departmental Head. The Inspector-General of Education could not be in a position to watch or gauge the progress of the scholar in his studies except by the opinion of the Head of the Department or other expert officer. The principle of transferring the administration of the technical scholarships to the Heads of the Departments concerned which was approved by Government in the case of foreign scholarships was also adopted in the case of the other technical and professional scholarships tenable in India which were mostly intended for securing recruits to the Departments concerned, the budget provision being likewise transferred from the Education Department to the Departments concerned. This system has come into effect from the year 1922-23.

Two scholarships of the value of Rs. 25 per mensem were awarded every year to graduates desirous of undergoing training in the Medical Colleges of Madras or Bombay. But as the number of qualified candidates so produced was inadequate to meet the requirements of the Medical Department, Government considered that special facilities should be afforded to candidates desirous of studying for the degrees in medicine and increased the number of scholarships to six. The amount of scholarship of Rs. 25 per mensem which was fixed years ago was found to be inadequate and was therefore raised to Rs. 40 for graduates and Rs. 30 for others. Two scholarships of Rs. 50 each were also awarded to Ayurvēdic Pandits and Unāni Hakims for undergoing training in Western system of medicine. The number of scholarships tenable during the years 1918-19, 1919-20, 1920-21 and 1921-22 was 6, 15, 23 and 29 respectively.

Professional
Scholarships:
Medical.

These scholarships varying from Rs. 20 to Rs. 40 were granted by Government at the instance of the Director

Agricultural
Scholarships.

of Agriculture, the number varying according to the needs of the Department. The scholars were deputed for study either in the Agricultural College, Poona, or Pusa. Four scholarships were awarded during each of the two years 1920-21 and 1921-22.

Veterinary,
Mining and
other
scholarships.

A number of scholarships were also awarded for the study of veterinary science in the Bombay Veterinary College. The value of these scholarships was increased from Rs. 25 to Rs. 30. A few mining scholarships were also awarded for undergoing training in the course of mining either in the Tata Mining Works, Sachi, or in the Engineering College, Sibpur, the value of the scholarships being Rs. 50. Some scholarships were also awarded to Mysore graduates for doing research work in different subjects in the Institute of Science. The number of such scholars is not fixed but is being determined by the requirements of the State from time to time. The value of these scholarships varies from Rs. 50 to Rs. 75. During the year 1920-21, there were six Mysore State scholars doing research work in the Institute, the subjects of study being investigation of lac, wood distillation, tanning, and essential oils and fats.

Endowment
Scholarships :
Khadyata
Scholarships.

The scholarships known as Khadyata scholarships are granted for the encouragement of general and technical education among the people of the Khadyata community to which the late Damodar Das belonged and are paid from the income derived from one-fifth of the Damodar Das Charities Fund and the up-to-date accumulated savings thereon. The number of scholarships was originally eleven, but was subsequently raised to eighteen, the value of the same ranging from Rs. 10 to Rs. 20. The selection of students for such scholarships is made by a Committee consisting of selected gentlemen of the Khadyata community appointed by Government from

time to time, who submit their recommendations to the Inspector-General of Education.

Besides the above, a number of endowments have been made by philanthropic gentlemen with sympathetic interest for the spread of education, the income from which is utilised either for awarding scholarships or prizes.

The sanctioned scale of expenditure on scholarships rose from Rs. 21,404 in 1890-91 to Rs. 3,65,398 in 1921-22. In the early stages, scholarships were provided in the lower grades of education only to women, pupils of the Depressed classes and Special communities, such as the Muhammadans and the Palegars. In the higher grades, provision was made only in the Arts Colleges for five merit scholarships and a few stipends ranging in value from Rs. 1-8-0 to Rs. 5-0-0 per mensem. In 1914, 100 scholarships of Rs. 5 each were instituted from village school fund to enable intelligent pupils in taluk stations to continue in IV and V Vernacular standards. A few stipends were also awarded, tenable in the local technical and professional colleges in British India, for the study of subjects for which there was no provision in the State. On the introduction of the Honours course in the Madras University, a few scholarships were sanctioned to enable deserving students to prosecute their studies in the Colleges outside the State. With the reorganisation of Industrial, Technical and Women's Education, liberal stipends on a large scale were sanctioned for pupils in the technical and industrial schools and made tenable in the technical and industrial schools and the scholarships provided for girls were also increased and made tenable in Primary and Lower Secondary classes and in the District Head-quarter Girls' schools. To attract private students to join the Upper Secondary Training course, a generous scale of stipends was also sanctioned so that the demand for qualified teachers to staff the ever increasing

Expenditure
on Scholar-
ships.

schools might be adequately met. A sum of Rs. 1,00,000 was allotted annually for the encouragement of education among the members of backward communities from 1917 and of this allotment a sum of Rs. 15,000 was reserved for the Depressed classes for award of scholarships in the Vernacular Primary and Lower Secondary stages and industrial classes. A further allotment of Rs. 15,000 was subsequently sanctioned for pupils of the Depressed classes studying in English classes.

To co-ordinate the several schemes of scholarships and to reduce expenditure on the same in view of the financial stringency, a Committee consisting of the Inspector-General of Education, representative of the University, of the backward communities and of Women's education was constituted in 1921 to examine in detail the various schemes of scholarships tenable within and outside the State (except foreign scholarships) and submit detailed proposals. The recommendations of the Committee were approved by Government with some modifications in their Order, dated 3rd December 1921, the net result of the revision being a savings of Rs. 81,864 per annum.

The actual expenditure on scholarships during the six years from 1916-17 to 1921-22 was as follows :—

Year		Amount	Year		Amount
1916-17	...	55,000	1919-20	...	129,600
1917-18	...	74,157	1920-21	..	78,313
1918-19	...	134,580	1921-22	...	144,992

As a measure of retrenchment, the tenure of scholarships has since been reduced from 12 to 10 months resulting in further savings of about Rs. 22,000.

Free-Student.
ships.

In addition to the liberal scholarships, a number of free studentships were also awarded in the University and the High School classes so as to enable poor and deserving students who either failed to obtain scholarships

or were not entitled for the same to continue their education. Different scales prevailed in the University and High School classes from time to time. With a view to fix a permanent scale of free studentships for all grades of education, Government after a careful consideration of the subject in consultation with the Board of Education, the University Council and the Inspector-General of Education, have issued orders to the effect that all scholarship-holders including holders of backward class scholarships should be free and of the remaining number, 30 per cent in the University classes, including the Engineering College, 25 per cent in the Entrance classes and 20 per cent in the High School classes should be free, existing concessions to Rajputs and Muhammadan pupils, girls and the Depressed classes remaining unaffected. These free studentships are open to all communities.

MANUAL TRAINING AND MEDICAL INSPECTION.

With the object of giving manual training in conjunction with general education, sloyd classes in wood were attached to Government High Schools. During 1920-21, there were 11 centres with a total strength of 1,462. In addition to the pupils of the High School forms, all the teachers under training in the Graduate and Undergraduate training classes in Mysore were also made to undergo a course in sloyd. Government also sanctioned a scheme for the construction of sloyd halls, and the construction of such halls at Bangalore and Chikballapur was completed by the end of the year 1921-22. Two Supervisors to inspect the sloyd centres were attached to the two circles. At the request of the Gwalior State, one of the Supervisors of sloyd was deputed to the Industrial, Agricultural and Educational Exhibition held at Gwalior in 1918 and the sloyd exhibits of Mysore were highly appreciated and awarded a gold medal. In addition

Sloyd Classes.

to these wood sloyd centres, there were also paper sloyd classes attached to most of the important A.-V. and Girls' Schools. The number under instruction in these classes during the years 1916-17, 1918-19 and 1920-21 was 6,038, 6,344 and 5,980 respectively. The sloyd classes as well as sloyd centres with the Supervisors and their establishment were, however, abolished in connection with retrenchments with effect from 1st July 1922. The tools and materials of these classes have been kept for use in connection with the Polytechnic course to be opened in the A.-V. Schools in conformity with the orders on the Education Memorandum.

Medical
Inspection of
Schools.

No particular attention was paid to the medical inspection of school children previous to the year 1908-09. In that year, the Sanitary Commissioner proposed that every medical officer or subordinate in charge of a Local Fund or other Dispensary should inspect all Government and grant-in-aid schools in the town or union in which they are stationed, every fortnight, with a view chiefly to examine the health of the children attending such schools and recommending such of them as require it to undergo treatment at the local dispensary at an hour that will not interfere with the school work. This arrangement was, however, insufficient. The subject was taken up for consideration by the Economic Conference and Government passed orders in March 1916 approving of a scheme for the medical inspection of pupils at District Headquarters by the Health Officers in the Cities and District Medical Officers in towns. The examination of school girls was entrusted to Lady Medical Officers. The essential principles underlying the scheme then introduced were a thorough examination of the pupils on admission, subsequent periodical examinations, treatment by the medical officers in the case of ordinary diseases and segregation in the case of communicable diseases and

the attendance of the local Sub-Assistant Surgeon or other Medical Officer as the medical officer of the schools at his Head-quarters on payment of remuneration to him. The scheme did not, however, work satisfactorily mainly due to the fact that no inducement was given to the medical officers to undertake the duties, and also because of the pressure of other work devolving on the District Medical Officers and their Assistants who could not therefore command sufficient leisure to attend to the work of examination of school children. As medical inspection, the necessity of which is admitted by all, was carried out neither systematically nor satisfactorily, Government laid down in their orders on the Education Memorandum "that in view of the cost involved on the large organisation that would be needed for the medical inspection of all schools, only a beginning could be made for the present in introducing the scheme in the Government A.-V. and High Schools at District Head-quarters. In the Cities of Bangalore and Mysore, the services of a retired medical officer or a qualified private practitioner may be engaged on an allowance of Rs. 100 or Rs. 150 per mensem. At other District Head-quarters, arrangements may be made for the work being conducted by the Local Medical Officer on payment of a fee which may be about one rupee per pupil for two half-yearly examinations. Government will be glad if aided agencies could also make similar arrangements for the medical inspection of schools under their charge and will be prepared to give, as far as funds permit, grants-in-aid not exceeding half the expenditure actually incurred by the management."

RELIGIOUS AND MORAL INSTRUCTION.

Direct Moral and Religious instruction formed part of the curricula of old *Pāṭasālas* in India, but with the introduction of the British Educational Policy in India with its religious neutrality, purely secular education was

Policy of
neutrality
and its
results.

developed in India till very recently. Mr. Devereaux's scheme, framed in accordance with the principles of the Government of India Despatch of 1854, was similarly neutral in policy as to religious instruction. The natural result of such a policy was that the direct influence of schools in moulding the character had failed and the Inspector-General of Education while emphasising strongly the necessity for religious and moral instruction observed in his letter, dated 17th June 1908, "for various reasons the homes of the pupils have ceased to impart religious and moral instruction and the influence of religious teachers and places of public worship has almost disappeared. Irreverence of all kinds and disrespect of authority have been on the increase. Modesty, self-restraint and good sense are largely at a discount, while presumption, vanity and unrestrained aggressiveness appear to be increasing. Religion can be and should be taught in Indian schools, in spite of the innumerable dogmatic differences between the various systems of religion prevailing in India." He submitted a scheme to Government providing for weekly discourses in Colleges, daily classes in High Schools, lectures on the basis of approved notes in taluk schools and advanced classes of village schools, and short moral stories and recitation of songs in village primary schools. The scheme aimed entirely at the teaching of higher details of life and conduct without bringing the teaching into clash with the religious sentiments of the various communities. It confined itself to imparting instruction in the higher ethical teaching, the cultivation of genuine religious feelings through the medium of conduct supplemented by moral discourses. Specific religious teaching was confined to books like the "Sanāthana Dharma" text-books, the *Koran* and approved commentaries and the subjects for moral discourse were based on a text taken from some religious, moral, historical or literary book. The scheme

was confined to Government institutions and attendance was made optional. If the number of non-Hindu pupils was more than 20, special arrangements were made for imparting instruction in the respective religions.

Government, while accepting the scheme, observed in their Order, dated 28th September 1908, that they were convinced that one of the readiest and most effective means of forming and training the character of youths was to be found in imparting religious and moral instruction to them as a systematic part of the school work and that as Mysore is a Hindu State and the bulk of the population is Hindu, provision in imparting Hindu religion should be made in all Government institutions. They recognised that this step was in the nature of an experiment and the results might possibly not be all that could be desired, but in the interest of the rising generation they felt that the State could no longer afford to postpone action in the matter. After the introduction of the scheme, the detailed programme of work in the several grades was steadily followed. In the lowest classes where it was not possible to separate religious and moral training, devotional songs and prayers were recited and stories from the *Purānas* illustrated by wall-pictures were narrated. In the High School classes, religion was taught on the non-sectarian lines with the aid of "Sanāthana Dharma" series of books. The working of the scheme for over a decade showed that it had not been, however, a complete success.

Introduction
of Religious
Instruction in
1908.

Suggestions were made as regards the lines on which religious and moral education may be improved in the schools so as to promote in the boys a spirit of reverence and devotion. Government have directed the Inspector-General of Education to work out a scheme on the basis of the suggestions received and in consultation

Scheme of
1908 under
Revision.

with the Board of Education. The matter is now engaging the attention of the Department.

TRAINING INSTITUTIONS.

Early
History.

The need for getting properly qualified teachers was felt very early and the Department of Education opened a Normal School for the Training of teachers in the early sixties of last century. An examination was instituted at the end of the course and certificates were issued to the successful candidates. After the institution of the Hobli School system, Normal Schools were established at each District Head-quarter station for training teachers to staff the schools opened and at the end of 1868 there were in these Normal Schools 354 persons undergoing training. These Normal Schools established for the training of indigenous school-masters and the masters in Hobli schools supplied efficient masters to all the institutions that Government found it possible to establish. The retrenchment of expenditure consequent on the famine of 1877 rendered the abolition of the Normal Schools necessary. But the large failures in the local examinations in subsequent years emphasised the need for specially trained teachers and in 1893-94 a Normal School was established at Mysore with classes for Upper Secondary and the Pandits' courses. The classes for the training of Vernacular mistresses which had been opened for the first time in 1888-89 in the Maharani's Girls' School, but later on absorbed in the Girls' School in 1892, were again reopened the next year in the Maharani's Girls' School. Two more Normal Schools, one at Kolar and the other at Shimoga, were opened in 1897.

The rapid development of Primary education necessitated the employment of teachers not always competent. As training could not be given to all because of the insufficient accommodation in the existing Normal

Schools, many schools had teachers whose qualifications were below the standard. "It will be seen," wrote the Inspector-General of Education in 1903-04, "that out of 3,179 teachers, 1,002 are both unpassed and untrained." In the years from 1904 to 1910, an aided training school for mistresses was opened in Bangalore. Changes were introduced in the curricula for the Upper Secondary and Pandits' examinations and the Pandits' course extended from 2 to 3 years.

At the beginning of the quinquennium 1911-1916, there were 2 Normal Schools for men teachers, all Government, and 2 for women teachers, one of the latter being an aided school conducted by the Wesleyan Mission at Bangalore and the other, the training department of the Maharani's College. There were no classes either for training teachers for English instruction in the A.-V. Schools or for preparing teachers for a degree in teaching. Two graduates were annually sent to the Teachers' College at Saidapet to undergo the L. T. course. But to meet the requirements of the Anglo-Vernacular schools which were increasing in numbers, an under-graduate training class was opened in 1912-13 in the Mysore Normal School. The number of trained teachers being, however, inadequate, the Normal Schools in the State were reorganised with a view to provide facilities for more extensive training of teachers. The chief features of the scheme of reorganisation were the raising of the Normal School at Mysore to the status of a Training College; the concentration of Hindustani training at the Normal School at Mysore, the classes till then held at Kolar and Shimoga for the purpose being abolished and the opening of a new Normal School at Tumkur. Subsequently, 2 more Normal Schools were opened at Bangalore and Chitaldrug with the result that there were in all 7 Training Institutions in the State in 1914-15 and 9 in 1915-16. The

Later Progress, 1911-16.

number trained in the various grades of training classes during the years 1914-15 and 1915-16 were 325 and 434 respectively.

Training of
Teachers of
Grant-in-aid
Schools.

Subsequently, a District Normal School was opened at Hassan in order to increase the output of trained teachers by 60 and a Training School at Mysore for Hindi School mistresses in order to secure suitable and qualified mistresses for Hindi Girls' schools. Facilities were provided for the training of teachers in grant-in-aid schools by the opening of 2 special classes, 1 in Mysore and 1 in Tumkur for training 160 teachers every year. But in pursuance of a resolution of the Conference of Educational officers that the Training classes for unpassed aided teachers should be abolished and that the stipend should be made available only to passed men at all District Normal Schools, Government ordered the discontinuance of these classes from 1st July 1920 and directed that 100 stipends of Rs. 10 each per mensem might be distributed among aided school-masters who have passed the Lower Secondary examination and made tenable in all Training Institutions of the State including the Training College. The total number of institutions and the strength therein at the end of the year 1921-22 was 11 and 588 respectively. Of the 11 institutions, 10 were maintained from State funds and 1 was aided. Of these, 8 were for males and 3 for females, the latter being the Normal Section in the Maharani's High School, Mysore, the Zenana Normal School, Mysore, and the Wesleyan Mission Normal School, Bangalore. In addition to these, special vacation classes were also held in six centres in which a large number of teachers, varying from 240 to 360, were trained every year.

Training
College,
Mysore.

Previous to 1914, there was no provision in the State for training graduates and it was usual to depute two

selected graduates to the Teachers' College, Saidapet, for the L. T. course. But, in that year, the teachers selected could not get admission into the Madras College and it was therefore considered imperative that arrangements should be made for the training of graduate teachers in one of the local Normal schools. Moreover, the higher money value that the revised grant-in-aid code attached to the trained teachers led to a demand from the Managers of the aided schools to provide training for their teachers in Government Normal Schools. To meet the local requirements, the Inspector-General of Education proposed that in the Normal School at Mysore an additional English training class for graduate teachers might be started and the existing elementary English training class remodelled by raising the standard so as to restrict admission only to those who had passed at least the Matriculation examination or possessed a complete School Leaving Certificate. The proposals were sanctioned by Government and a graduate training class was opened and the designation of the Normal School changed to that of the Training College. The College developed rapidly and had at the end of 1915-16 eighteen different classes with a total strength of 230 pupils, of whom 6 were in the Graduate Training class, 16 in Pandits' and Moulvis' classes, 105 in the Kannada High School Department, 24 in the Under-Graduate Training class, 94 in the Lower Training Department and 9 in the Agricultural training class. The various classes held in the Institute were:—

- (1) Graduate training class.
- (2) Under-Graduate training class.
- (3) Upper Secondary training class.
- (4) Lower Secondary (Kannada) training class.
- (5) Lower Secondary (Urdu) training class.
- (6) Agricultural training class.
- (7) Upper Secondary (Kannada) class.

- (8) Upper Secondary (Urdu) class.
- (9) Upper Secondary Urdu training class.
- (10) Pandits' class.
- (11) Moulvis' class.

The strength of the Institution rose steadily from 278 during 1916-17 to 337 at the close of 1921-22. Of the total number of 337, 76 were Muhammadans, 193 Brahmans, 20 Lingayets, 1 Jain and 47 other classes of Hindus.

One special feature of the Graduate training class was that arrangements were made for extra Collegiate lectures in Mathematics, Science and History by experienced lecturers of the Maharaja's College and Collegiate High School. An Agricultural Training class was also attached to the College, which was, however, abolished from 1st July 1921 and the Agricultural Farm attached thereto ordered to be closed from the same date. Two Practising Schools, one A.-V. and another Anglo-Hindustani, were also attached to the College, so that the teachers undergoing training might give practical demonstration in the methods of teaching.

District
Normal
Schools.

During the year 1921-22, there were in all 7 District Normal Schools for men and 2 for women (including the Lower Secondary Training section of the Training College, Mysore) and 582 teachers were undergoing training during the year. Of these, 224 masters and 28 mistresses passed in the theoretical portion of the Lower Secondary Training examination and 103 masters and 10 mistresses in the practical examination.

MEDICAL EDUCATION.

Scholarships
for Medical
Education.

The Government had for a long time a system of granting scholarships to Graduates desirous of undergoing training in the Medical Colleges of Madras and Bombay with a view to secure a sufficient number of qualified

candidates for employment in the Medical Department. The number of scholarships which was at first fixed at two was subsequently raised to six, the amount of scholarships being also raised from Rs. 25 to Rs. 40 per mensem in the case of graduates and Rs. 30 for others. Some scholarships were also sanctioned for the study of the indigenous system to enable candidates who had obtained proficiency in Western medicine to acquaint themselves also with the Āyurvēdic system of treatment. Two scholarships of Rs. 50 each also were awarded to Āyurvēdic Pandits and Unāni Hakims for undergoing training in the Western system of medicine.

A Medical School was started in the State on 1st July 1917 with the object primarily of training Sub-Assistant Surgeons required for medical subordinate service and secondarily of training when accommodation is available for candidates desiring to qualify themselves as private medical practitioners.

Starting of
Medical
School, 1917.

The question of instituting a Medical Faculty in the State was under consideration for some time past. When the subject was considered by the University Senate in 1923, it was resolved that, in order to meet the growing and urgent demands of graduates and undergraduates of the University for the study of Medicine and in view of the fact that it is very difficult for Mysore students to secure admission to the Medical Colleges in the neighbouring Presidencies, the Faculty of Medicine may be instituted in the Mysore University and a College of Medicine opened at Bangalore. A special Committee was appointed to work out the details. The report of the Committee adopted by the Senate was considered by Government, who accorded their sanction to the institution of the Faculty of Medicine in the Mysore University and the establishment of a Medical College at Bangalore

Establish-
ment of
Medical
College, 1924.

in combination with the Medical School with effect from the academical year commencing from July 1924.

TEXT-BOOKS.

For Higher
Courses of
study.

Text-books prescribed for the higher courses of study are recommended by the University and the majority of them are publications of well-known publishing firms. Suitable text-books for the lower classes, however, are more difficult to get. The need for the help of experts was felt so long ago as 1873-74 and a temporary Committee was then formed to select books and recommend courses of study for Mysore and Coorg. Mr. C. Rangacharlu, afterwards Dewan of Mysore, and Mr. Rice were on the Committee.

Text-Book
Committee
and its func-
tions.

A regular Text-Book Committee was first formed in 1892 for the selection and preparation of text-books for schools. The strength of the Committee was 30, but subsequently increased to 45, composed of scholars in the various languages in the State. It is divided into a number of sub-committees to deliberate on particular classes of text-books, English text-books, Urdu text-books, etc., and to consider individual books and make recommendations to the Committee and to indicate how far the existing text-books require revision and on what lines they are to be revised. Under the above arrangement, a large number of books received for patronage were reviewed and got printed so as to be useful either for general study or for being prescribed as text-books in the schools of the State. But there was in this connection a certain amount of overlapping of functions amongst the several agencies in the State, *viz.*, the Education Department, the Board of Education and the Publication Bureau of the University, all of which were concerned in the publication of original works in Kannada. With a view to avoid this overlapping, rules have been laid down

defining the scope of action of the three bodies. According to these rules, the Education Department, with the aid of the Text-Book Committee, is to confine itself to the publication of text-books for schools according to the curricula prescribed by the Department; the Board of Education to interest itself in the publication, on modern lines, of books bearing on general knowledge and not falling under the head of text-books intended for use in schools; and the scope of the Publication Bureau has been limited to advanced treatises and works of higher study and also to the preparation of books suitable for the University grade of education. The remuneration to be paid to the authors for writing these books, which was not so far regulated but was determined on the merits of each individual case, was also regularised by prescribing rates varying from Rs. 8 to Rs. 15 per form according to the nature of the subject matter and the Inspector-General of Education was empowered to sanction remuneration up to Rs. 250 for approved books, payments exceeding this amount requiring the sanction of Government.

EDUCATIONAL FINANCE—GENERAL.

The amount spent on Education in the State is derived from the following sources:—State Funds, Local and Municipal Funds, and Fees—all of which are called public funds—and from endowments and contributions, which form private funds. As the expansion of educational facilities foreshadowed in the Memorandum on Education involves considerable additional expenditure, the reform contemplated costing about 22 lakhs of rupees per year in addition to the then existing expenditure, and as the resources at the disposal of Government are limited, the question of finding ways and means for meeting the additional expenditure was carefully considered by Government at the time and it was held that it would not be possible to give effect to the reforms without the

Ways and means for education.

active co-operation of local bodies. Government accordingly laid down that an Education Cess of one anna in the rupee be levied on all items of land, excise and forest revenue on which local cess is now levied and similar cess of 2 annas in the rupee in City Municipalities and 1 anna in other Municipalities and that local fund general and mohatarfa made over to the District Boards in 1917 be resumed and utilised for educational purposes, the rates of mohatarfa fixed long ago being revised suitably.

Expenditure
on Education
during 1921-22
and 1922-23.

The expenditure on Education during the years 1921-22 and 1922-23 was met from the following sources:—

Sources	Accounts		Percentage to total cost	
	1921-22	1922-23	1921-22	1922-23
	Rs.	Rs.		
State Funds	28,71,355	37,04,634	64.27	84.88
Local Funds	10,04,725	45,166	23.18	1.03
Municipal Funds	5,245	5,078	.11	.12
Fees	2,86,749	3,19,431	6.24	7.32
All other sources	2,79,168	2,90,033	6.20	6.65
Total	44,47,242	43,64,292	100.00	100.00

GOVERNMENT EMPLOYMENT AND PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

Standards of
Educational
qualifications
required for
Public
Service.

Educational qualifications are always considered as essential for entry into Government service. State service absorbs a considerable portion of the educated class and it has also acted as an incentive to literary and scientific education in regard to certain classes aspiring to Government service. A certain standard of general educational qualifications is insisted upon as the minimum required in respect of the several classes of appointments and it has been the policy of Government in general to give preference to persons possessing higher qualifications as against those possessing lower ones in filling up places in the public service. But with a view to give to

certain communities who are backward in education an opportunity for entering the public service, the rules regulating admission into it have been relaxed to a certain extent. The minimum educational qualifications necessary for direct recruitment to the several classes of appointments in the ministerial ranks of superior service have been fixed and members of backward communities possessing the required qualifications are preferred in filling up vacancies in those ranks. For appointments in technical Departments, however, technical examinations and professional training are considered essential. For recruitment to higher appointments in the technical Departments, candidates possessing the required general educational qualifications are selected to undergo the prescribed course of training in foreign countries.

The requirements of the Education Department in regard to educational qualifications, specially in regard to teachers employed therein, are somewhat different. While reviewing the problems relating to the improvement of education in Mysore, Government considered the question of minimum qualifications of teachers and they laid down the rule that no candidate who has not passed the S. S. L. C. Examination and has not been trained should be entertained as a teacher in the Middle School nor any one appointed as a teacher unless he has also passed the Entrance or Intermediate Examination. It has also been ordered that the Head-masters of all important Middle Schools should be graduates. The scale of pay of the tutorial and inspecting staff of Girls' Schools has been liberally provided and special grades of pay have been sanctioned for women teachers and women inspectors possessing high University qualifications. For appointments in the University, local graduates and M. A.'s who have passed with distinction are selected to fill up

In the Education Department and University.

the places of Junior Professors, Assistant Professors, Demonstrators, Lecturers, Tutors, etc., and the ranks of professors are generally recruited by persons who have undergone training in recognised Western Universities and have specialized in the subject or subjects which they are expected to teach.

LIBRARIES.

Development
of Public
Libraries in
the State.

The development of Public Libraries throughout the State received the special attention of the Education Committee of the Economic Conference as it was considered a means of carrying enlightenment to the people. The Library organisation consisted of the following :—

- (1) Libraries in the various schools and colleges ;
- (2) Educational Library ;
- (3) The two Public Libraries in the Cities of Bangalore and Mysore ;
- (4) District and Taluk Libraries ;
- (5) Rural Libraries ; and
- (6) Travelling Libraries.

College and
School
Libraries.

Libraries attached to the particular institutions have been mentioned under those institutions. These libraries are intended for the use of the students and staff of the institutions concerned, and are not open to the public. Special grants were made in recent years to equip the libraries with a large range of books so as to be useful both to the teachers and the taught.

Educational
Library.

This is located in the office of the Inspector-General of Education in Mysore and the books are lent to the departmental Inspecting Officers and school-masters and to the public only under certain restrictions. When the Public Library at Bangalore was opened, 255 volumes were transferred to it from this Library. The stock has considerably been added to during the recent years by

the purchase of not only school books in English, Kannada, Telugu and Sanskrit but also books relating to History, English literature, Biography, etc.

The City Libraries were started in the year 1914-15 under the direct control of Government and continued to be practically Government institutions till they were registered in the year 1920 with a new constitution under the Mysore Society Regulations when they were converted into aided institutions, each managed by a strong committee of 15 members, 8 of them being nominated by Government and the rest elected from among the subscribers. The Bangalore Public Library is located in the Sir K. Seshadri Iyer's Memorial Hall and that of Mysore is housed in a Hall of the Chamrajendra Technical Institute. Membership of the Libraries is open to the public on payment of a fee and a section of the reading room attached to the Libraries is open to non-members also.

Public
Libraries at
Bangalore and
Mysore.

The Library at Bangalore was very much enlarged by the munificent donation of over Rs. 21,000 given by the Seshadri Iyer Memorial Committee for forming the "Sir K. Seshadri Iyer Memorial Section" in History, Economics and Politics. At the close of 1921-22, the number of subscribers in the two libraries was 452 and 187 and the number of visitors 81,733 and 84,290. The number of volumes in the libraries was 8,419 and 8,708 and the number of books lent out was 43,557 and 30,871. The fee collections were Rs. 4,814 and Rs. 2,908. The total income of the Bangalore Library was Rs. 13,040 of which Government contributed Rs. 7,000 and the Bangalore City and Civil and Military Station Municipalities Rs. 600 and Rs. 500 respectively, while the total expenditure was Rs. 12,142. The income of the Mysore Library including the Government grant of Rs. 4,250 was Rs. 7,252 and the expenditure was Rs. 5,398-1-7.

District and
Taluk
Libraries.

With a view to develop the scheme of Public Libraries by encouraging local initiative, the Education Committee of the Economic Conference recommended that a definite scale of grants to such libraries be laid down. Government, while appreciating the desirability of increasing the number of such libraries in the mofussil, sanctioned the following scale of grants for a period of three years from December 1917 :—

Fifty per cent of local contribution or Rs. 500 whichever is less in the case of District Libraries and an amount not exceeding local contributions or Rs. 250 whichever is less in the case of Taluk Libraries.

Twenty-five per cent of local contribution or Rs. 25 per mensem whichever is less in the case of District Libraries and 25 per cent of local contributions or Rs. 15 per mensem whichever is less in the case of Taluk Libraries.

Equal to the contributions raised in both the cases.

The administration and control of these libraries was vested in an Advisory Committee and the liberal scale of grants sanctioned by Government gave an impetus to the starting of such libraries in various centres, the number of which during the year 1919-20 being 166. Grants admissible under the rules to these libraries where the amount does not exceed Rs. 250 are sanctioned by the Deputy Commissioner and President of the District Board and above Rs. 250 but not exceeding Rs. 500 by the Inspector-General of Education, while grants in excess of the above sum as also those which are not specifically provided for under the rules are sanctioned only by Government.

Rural
Libraries.

Rural libraries were also started in villages under the management of committees consisting of five principal residents of the village. The initial expense connected with the purchase of books, furniture, etc., was met by a contribution from the people and a grant from Govern-

ment not exceeding the amount contributed, the maximum being limited to Rs. 100. One-fourth of the annual expenditure not exceeding Rs. 15 was also given when necessary. The scale of grants was revised in 1921 according to which the initial or equipment grant was made equal to local contributions but not exceeding Rs. 50 and the recurring or maintenance grant to Rs. 25 per cent of local contributions or Rs. 3 per mensem whichever is less. But these revised scales of grants could not be brought into operation as orders were issued subsequent to 12th July 1921 that these rules should be suspended until further orders.

Government in their order dated 8th February 1919 sanctioned a scheme of travelling libraries on the recommendations of the Education Committee of the Mysore Economic Conference. Owing to several defects, the benefits anticipated from the scheme were not realised and Government ordered in May 1921 that the whole scheme might be held in abeyance, the libraries being kept in safe custody in the taluk offices. On the representation of the Inspector-General of Education that these books should not thus be allowed to go to waste unutilised, Government approved of his recommendation to transfer these books to the Head-quarter A.-V. Schools, the libraries of which would thus be enriched.

Travelling
Libraries.

A class for training those interested in library management was organised and 55 persons, mostly teachers from the A.-V., High and District Normal Schools in the State, were trained during the summer vacation of 1920. The instruction consisted of a series of lectures followed by a course of practical training at the end of which there was an examination. As the post of the Library Organiser was abolished in 1921, the scheme of training teachers in library science was held in abeyance.

Library
training
class.

LITERATURE.

Literary
activity in the
State.

For decades after the Department of Education was constituted, the work of reviewing literary activity in the State was entrusted to the Department of Education. In 1918, it was relieved of the work. The publication in Kannada of books of modern interest and practical value and the encouragement of such books published by non-official agency in the State are of such vital importance to the general educational progress that a brief reference may be made to it here.

“As the importance of the Vernacular languages becomes more appreciated, the Vernacular literatures of India will be gradually enriched by translations of European books, or by the original compositions of men whose minds have been imbued with the spirit of European advancement, so that European knowledge may gradually be placed in this manner within the reach of all classes of the people.”

Development
of Kannada
Literature.

So ran the Despatch of 1854 on the subject of Vernacular instruction. The Education Department has had this important idea before it all along. Mr. Garratt and Mr. Rice, Director of Public Instruction, the latter for nearly two decades, did good work for the improvement of Kannada literature. The review for the year 1914 ended with the following words:—

“A considerable number of no mean literary merit and general importance go either unregistered or are included in the large number of journals published in different parts of the State not necessarily coming in for registration, yet judging from the quality of registered publications alone, it may be stated that no original work of an epoch-making nature has appeared during 1914. Originality of both thought and expression is still absent in most of the literary productions. It is regrettable to note again that no enterprising writer has yet ventured well to open up Kannada literature in the regions of Art, Law, Science and Travel. But then taking a retrospective

view over a period covered by the last decade or two, tendencies are clearly noticeable towards a wholesome development of Kannada literature in some directions. Kannada prose, which is admittedly poor with reference to old and mediæval dialects, is making rapid progress chiefly in the branch of fiction. Fair beginnings are also being made in the directions of Biography and History. Of late, many a writer has been contributing literary productions to several magazines chiefly with the object of enriching the language. Even in the branch of poetry, a branch often subjected to conservative conventionalities, even here, tendencies for the better are not wanting. Many a Puranic episode is being given a dramatic garb on more or less fresh lines chiefly with the object of edifying the public. So far as drama is concerned, real advance is made in form, matter and treatment. The number that came for recognition during 1919 is the largest and some of them exhibit considerable dramatic art and skill. It is hoped that, in the near future, there will be social and historical plays in good number."

As regards modern prose, it is a healthy sign that a simple language of great fluency and force has been adopted by all writers in preference to the highly artificial and laboured composition, which was prevalent for some time. Later, literary productions in poetry as in prose have begun to show a better moral atmosphere about them than their predecessors. So also is a better taste for books growing as may be seen from a larger number of books of better get up produced from year to year. Private patronage is also tending to supplement the Government patronage as may be inferred from the facts that a few books have been published of late years at the cost of private gentlemen and that magazines and newspapers are increasing in numbers and being welcomed by a growing body of subscribers. Above all, the spread of primary education among the hitherto illiterate masses and technical education among the literate classes is making slow but steady progress, with the result that the taste for reading among

Beginnings of
a literary
revival.

the public is growing stronger and stronger. But all this can only be taken to mean that literary revival has begun. What appears to be most needed at this juncture is an organisation of competent men with access to the stores of Western knowledge for spreading among the public useful knowledge on important subjects of every day interest, an organisation to guide effectively at once the literary activity of writers into fresh and interesting channels, and the reading taste of the public into useful and healthy branches of knowledge. Such an organisation has come into existence in the Kannada Academy which is publishing a journal and is a potent influence for the development of the chief vernacular in the State. In 1915-16, Government sanctioned a grant of Rs. 130 a month to the Academy and gave also a lumpsum grant of Rs. 1,000. The Board of Education, the University of Mysore and the Education Department are doing a great deal with a view to enrich the literature on scientific and other subjects of modern interest and practical importance. The chief difficulty in the matter till recently was that the Department had to approach specialists with individual requests for writing books and in most cases the requisitions were either not complied with or were proposed to be complied with on exorbitant terms. The best arrangement was thought to be to throw the matter open to public competition by advertising for books on the prize award system. The recommendation of the Department in this respect was approved by Government and a number of books on subjects of modern and scientific interest, such as, physics, chemistry, astronomy, botany, zoology, properties of matter, mechanics and hydrostatics, magnetism and electricity, etc., were written and printed. The number of books received for patronage during the period of six years from 1916-17 to 1921-22 was as given below :—

Year	No. of books.	Year	No. of books.
1916-17	... 241	1919-20	... 232
1917-18	... 251	1920-21	... 272
1918-19	... 130	1921-22	... 321

"In regard to the literature planned and executed as above," wrote the Inspector-General of Education in his Administration Report for 1918-19, "it is very likely that the earliest products, no matter by whom written, will not please every one and that there will be much that would meet with criticism from scholars and specialists. But like all plastic arts it has to be developed from crude beginnings, and further, unless there is a beginning of some sort, there could be no development. As in painting and sculpture, a succession of touches is required to improve the picture to perfection, and they, who expect by means of Committees and other collective agencies to bring about a perfect product at the very commencement, forget to some extent that authorship like art is an individual affair, and aims at the impossible or what is possible only in rare cases of genius. To compare the early beginnings of Kannada with the high developments of English and French and despair our own conditions and resign ourselves to inactivity is a fallacious and stultifying process. It is to expect, as Sir Rabindranath Tagore put it, that all people shall be born adults instead of infants; it does not allow for the vital process of growth and development which are of the very essence of true progress. Imperfect, therefore, as our productions may be, they are a hopeful sign of the possibilities that may be realised by constant efforts on the part of the educated."

PRINTING PRESSES, NEWSPAPERS AND PERIODICALS.

Private enterprise in the direction of printing was first stimulated in the year 1862 by the establishment of a Press known as the "Vichara Darpana" Press in the City of Bangalore. The Book Depot Press is the next oldest in the City; it was established in 1872. A Press started by an Anglo-Indian gentleman, at which *The Bangalore Herald* and *The Bangalore Spectator* were printed, appears to be the oldest in the Civil and Military Station.

Private
Printing
Presses at
Bangalore.

Another English newspaper known as *The Bangalore Examiner* was being printed in another printing press also started by an Anglo-Indian gentleman. A Kannada newspaper, the first of its kind in the Civil and Military Station, was also printed by it. Later on, another gentleman started *The Daily Post* and established a Press for it. His Press was subsequently amalgamated with *The Examiner* Press and the combined press became known thereafter as the *Daily Post* Press. The Caxton Press was established in 1871 on a small scale for the publication of a tri-weekly paper. A bi-weekly known as *The Evening Mail* was for long being printed in it. This Press has been recently transferred to the City. Among other Presses in the City is the Bangalore Press, owned by the Bangalore Printing and Publishing Co., started in 1916.

At Mysore.

In Mysore City, the *Star* Press seems to be the oldest, having been established in the year 1868. The "G. T. A." Press is also well known there. The "Wesleyan Mission" Press at Mysore has also been turning out good work.

Recent progress in Printing.

Most of the private presses referred to were using hand presses until very recently. With the increase in trade and other activities, some of these have installed new printing machinery. Including the two Government Presses, there were during the year 1922-23, 88 printing presses in the State. Of these, 37 were in the Bangalore District, 25 in the Mysore District, 9 in the Kolar District, 4 in the Kadur District, 7 in the Shimoga District and 2 each in the Tumkur, Hassan and Chitaldrug Districts. In Bangalore and Mysore, the bigger presses use electric power for working their machinery.

Newspapers.

Among the oldest newspapers in the Vernacular were the *Kasim-ul-Akbar* in Hindustani, started in 1863, and

the *Karnataka Prakashika* in Kannada, begun in 1865 but discontinued at the end of 1898. There were 16 newspapers and 50 periodicals in circulation during the year 1923, of which 26 were in English, 32 in Kannada and 8 in more than one language. Of the 50 periodicals, one was a comic journal, three dealt with scientific topics, 20 with educational and literary matters, 10 with religion, three with philosophy, one with Government orders and reviews of reports, etc., issued by Government and 12 with miscellaneous matters. Thirty-six of the periodicals were monthly, 10 quarterly, three weekly and one fortnightly.

Act No. XX of 1847 (as introduced in British India) which provides for the encouragement of learning by the enforcement of the right called copyright was introduced into Mysore by the Government of India Notification No. 176, dated 12th September 1867. Simultaneously, for the regulation of printing presses and newspapers, for the preservation of copies of books printed in the territories of Mysore, and for the registration of such books, Act No. XXV of 1897 was passed. This was subsequently amended by Regulation No. I of 1894. Later on in 1908, to provide for the efficient control of the publication of newspapers and other printed works containing public news, Regulation No. III of 1908 was passed. When the European War of 1914 broke out, the Mysore Naval and Military News (Emergency) Regulation No. VII of 1914 was passed. This has ceased to be operative now. A bill for amending Regulation No. III of 1908 has been introduced into the local Legislative Council and is now under active consideration.

Regulations
regarding
Printing
Presses and
Newspapers.

FURTHER PROGRESS IN EDUCATION.

The following is a brief summary of the progress made up to the beginning of 1928 in the various directions

since 1923-24, the date up to which the progress described in the main section is confined :—

(1) There was a comprehensive reorganization of the controlling agencies of the Department and the designation of the Head of the Department was changed from 'The Inspector-General of Education' to 'The Director of Public Instruction.' The responsibilities and the functions of the several grades of officers were revised as detailed in the appropriate place above.

(2) The Financial and the Local Examination sections of the office of the Head of the Department were reorganized and their functions clearly defined.

(3) The scheme of medical inspection of boys in the High and Middle Schools in the Bangalore City was brought into effect.

(4) The rules and the syllabuses of the commercial examinations were revised so as to place the Mysore Government Commercial Examinations on a par with those conducted by the Madras Government.

(5) Primary and middle school education was remodelled each on a four-year basis and the schools which included primary and middle school classes were bifurcated.

(6) The control over the primary schools in the City of Bangalore was transferred to the Municipal Council.

(7) The rules for the Lower Secondary Examination were suitably revised.

(8) The grant-in-aid to the Village Elementary Schools was enhanced by Rs. 2 a month.

(9) The School Committees were reconstituted and their powers and duties revised.

(10) Rules regarding grant-in-aid to private hostels was revised and larger encouragement was given to private hostels.

(11) An Advisory Committee for the enhancement of the Education of Muhammadans was formed.

(12) A separate fund called the Muhammadan Scholarship fund was constituted to be administered by the Head of the Department assisted by a Special Committee.

(13) The Zenana Normal School at Mysore was converted into a Boarding School.

(14) The Chamarajendra Sanskrit College was ordered to be thrown open to all castes and its control was transferred to the Education Department.

(15) Practical instruction classes in leather work, mat-making, smithy, etc., were opened in certain Panchama Schools and a Boarding House for the Adikarnataka students of High Schools at Bangalore was opened.

(16) The control of the Industrial Schools was transferred to the control of the Industries and Commerce Department.

(17) The Scheme of scholarships was systematised.

(18) The standard plans for school buildings were improved and a large number of new school buildings were constructed.

(19) The equipments of schools were standardized.

(20) The Women's Home at Mysore was reorganised and converted into a Vocational Institute for women in which certain art-industrial subjects were taught.

(21) A Vocation Training Class for Lower Secondary trained teachers to serve as a sort of refresher was instituted.

(22) The holding of a Vocation Training Class in Elementary Science for Science teachers was organised.

(23) The curricula of Adikarnataka Primary Schools providing for both general and vocational instruction was revised.

(24) The execution of building works hitherto done by the Department was transferred to the Public Works Department.

(25) Certain additional powers were delegated to the Head of the Department in order to minimise delay and unnecessary correspondence.

(26) The minimum pay of Head Masters of High Schools and District Inspectors of Education was fixed at Rs. 200 per mensem.

STATISTICS OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

Of the two statements appearing at the end of this Chapter, the first is a comparative table of schools and scholars for five decades—1881 to 1921—and for the year 1923 and the second sets out the expenditure incurred on education in the State and the cost of educating each pupil during the same period.

Comparative
tables of
Schools and
Scholars and
Expenditure,
1881 to 1921
and for 1923.

TABLE I.

COMPARATIVE TABLE OF SCHOOLS AND SCHOLARS FOR FIVE DECADES—1881 TO 1921—AND FOR THE YEAR 1923.

Institutions and Scholars	On 30th June 1881	On 30th June 1891	On 30th June 1901	On 30th June 1911	On 30th June 1921	On 30th June 1923
PRIMARY SCHOOLS ...	907	1,306	1,946	2,077	8,800	7,196
Scholars { Boys ...	35,219	40,261	52,118	60,168	183,108	180,755
{ Girls ...	3,077	6,892	13,375	14,636	38,866	48,158
SECONDARY SCHOOLS	166	230	237	303	522	546
Scholars { Boys ...	3,007	20,035	24,230	29,972	65,582	34,917
{ Girls ...	127	3,099	3,111	7,544	14,835	4,107
ARTS COLLEGES ...	4	5	8	8	1	...
Scholars { Boys ...	129	481	504	624	17	...
{ Girls ...	3	...	12	10
ORIENTAL COLLEGES	4*
Scholars { Boys	324
{ Girls
SPECIAL SCHOOLS ...	10	54	48	67	364†	82
Scholars { Boys ...	1,118	2,168	1,380	2,632	9,605	3,536
{ Girls ...	27	46	98	161	1,239	234
PROFESSIONAL SCHOOLS	...	1	5	5	10	11‡
Scholars { Boys ...	48	158	177	452	550	...
{ Girls	5	25	43	67	...
TOTAL OF SCHOOLS ...	1,017	1,596	2,244	2,460	9,697	7,839
Scholars { Boys ...	39,473	62,993	78,390	92,873	258,764	220,062
{ Girls ...	3,214	9,977	16,601	22,376	54,983	52,668
PRIVATE SCHOOLS ...	§	1,814	1,765	1,807	782	953
Scholars { Boys	23,457	20,994	22,306	9,887	14,141
{ Girls	483	598	915	1,003
GRAND TOTAL OF SCHOOLS	1,087	3,410	4,009	4,267	10,479	8,792
Scholars { Boys ...	39,473	86,450	99,384	115,179	268,651	234,223
{ Girls ...	3,214	9,977	17,084	22,974	55,898	53,671

* These were not under the management of the Department of Education during certain decades.

† Include 290 Practical Instruction classes.

‡ Include Special Schools.

§ Were not in existence on this date.

TABLE II.

EXPENDITURE ON EDUCATION AND THE COST OF EDUCATING EACH PUPIL IN THE DECADES FROM 1881 TO 1921 AND FOR THE YEAR 1923.

	1881		1891		1901	
	Total expenditure	Cost of educating each pupil	Total expenditure	Cost of educating each pupil	Total Cost	Cost of educating each pupil
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Rs.	Rs. a. p.	Rs.	Rs. a. p.	Rs.	Rs. a. p.
English Colleges ...	23,880	215 4 0	67,374	148 13 0	141,748	256 0 0
Secondary Schools ...	103,596	237 3 9	233,700	10 15 0	351,247	13 0 0
Primary Schools ...	193,995	20 3 0	157,643	3 8 0	275,979	4 6 0
Special Schools ...	8,578	275 8 3	30,703	70 0 0	56,846	26 0 0
Direction and Inspection	39,150	...	41,443	...	79,767	...
Scholarships ...	1,573	...	21,404	...	50,990	...
Buildings ...	2,980	...	62,635	...	79,944	...
Miscellaneous ...	17,276	...	30,893	...	63,858	...

	1911		1921		1923	
	Total Cost	Cost of educating each pupil	Total Cost	Cost of educating each pupil	Total Cost	Cost of educating each pupil
	8	9	10	11	12	13
	Rs.	Rs. a. p.	Rs.	Rs. a. p.	Rs.	Rs. a. p.
English Colleges ...	221,492	362 0 0	477,528	457 0 0	523,705	481 5 6
Secondary Schools ...	520,870	14 0 0	1,490,860	19 0 0	1,325,265	28 0 0
Primary Schools ...	351,495	5 0 0	1,450,982	7 0 0	1,336,997	6 0 0
Special Schools ...	167,709	44 0 0	447,630	31 0 0	366,785	90 0 0
Direction and Inspection.	119,847	...	341,315	...	400,310	...
Scholarships ...	113,474	...	238,600	...	121,943	...
Buildings ...	273,355	...	305,043	...	183,866	...
Miscellaneous ...	144,684	...	350,795	...	385,544	...

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16. Various Government Orders issued from time to time on matters relating to Education, too numerous to mention. The following, however, may be specially noted :—
 - (a) G. O. No. 1321-80—Edn. 96-19-1, dated 5th August 1919, publishing a Memorandum on the Progress of Education in the Mysore State.
 - (b) G. O. No. 11180-250—Edn. 498-20-1, dated 25th May 1921, reviewing problems relating to the improvement of Education in Mysore and laying down the future policy.
 - (c) Subsequent orders giving effect to the policy enunciated in the above order issued up to end of 1927.
17. Various Addresses of successive Dewans of Mysore delivered to the Representative Assembly—1881-1927.
Annual Reports of the University, 1917-18 to 1923-27.
Mysore General Administration Reports, 1916-17 to 1923-27.
Mysore University Calendar, 1925-27.

CHAPTER VIII.

SURVEYS.

SECTION I—TRIGONOMETRICAL AND OTHER SURVEYS.

ALMOST the first attempt at a survey of any kind of Mysore was made, in the beginning of the nineteenth century, by Dr. Francis Buchanan (who subsequently assumed the name of Hamilton) under the express orders of the Marquis Wellesley, then Governor-General of India. Buchanan-Hamilton's *Journey through Mysore*, which is referred to at some length below, is a work of unique interest. Buchanan prefixed to his work a map, which was prepared for him by Major C. Crawford who afterwards became Surveyor-General of India (1814-16) and is known as one of the first to attempt to measure the height of the Himalayan peaks in 1802. This map was intended by Buchanan to enable the reader to trace his route through the country he traversed and to judge of the opportunities he had of viewing the country. Major Crawford's map was framed apparently on simple lines. On a map of Major Rennel, he laid down a sketch of Buchanan's route. The very imperfect nature of the materials at Major Crawford's disposal rendered many errors unavoidable, and though Buchanan utilised a map he later received from Lieutenant-Colonel Mackenzie to rectify them, he records his regret that he did not receive it in time to avail himself of the numerous geographical improvements Mackenzie had effected in his production.

First attempt
at a Survey of
Mysore.

Neither Mackenzie's nor Crawford's map of Mysore can be described as the earliest map attempted of Mysore.

The earliest
maps of
Mysore.

A part of Mysore is figured in the map of the "Carnatic," which forms the frontispiece to Robert Orme's *History of the Military Transactions of the British Nation in Indostan*, Volume II, published in 1778. This is, so far as is known, the earliest attempt to depict Mysore on any modern map. This map, however, is more historical than geographical. Very similar is the other map of Mysore included in Orme's *Historical Fragments of the Mogul Empire, of the Morattoes, and of the English concerns in Indostan from the year M.D.C. LIX*, which was first published in 1782, and republished, after Orme's death, in 1805. The longitudes in this map are measured from East of London. This is a tolerably good map, but not being laid from actual surveys is only approximate as to positions of places, etc. Major Dirom's *Narrative of the Campaign in India which terminated the war with Tippoo Sultan in 1792*, published in 1792, has a much better map though only partially descriptive of Mysore. This map was, we are told, constructed from "a late Survey of that part of the Malabar Coast by Captain Montessor, and from the Survey of the other countries by Captains Beatson and Allen" and "published by Major Rennel in 1790." This was Major Rennel, the "Father of Indian Geography." His *Memoir of a map of Hindoostan*, which was first published in 1788, is well known. The method of surveying adopted by him was to fix the positions of a considerable number of stations by astronomical observations for latitude and longitude and to measure the intervening distance with the chain or with the 'measuring-wheel.' The correct determination of longitudes was his chief difficulty and although he utilized the work of several independent observers in India, his maps can only be considered, according to competent authority, as "approximations to accurate cartography."

In 1800, William Lambton, who had formerly served under Colonel Arthur Wellesley, afterwards Duke of Wellington, initiated the Great Trigonometrical Survey of India, the first base line of 7·43 miles being measured near Bangalore with the chain. During the next two years, Lambton was employed in fixing, by triangulation, a large number of points in Mysore, to serve as the basis for the topographical survey then in progress under Colonel Colin Mackenzie, afterwards Surveyor-General of India and well known by his Manuscript collections. Lambton was indefatigable in his work and his work resulted among other things in the correction of Rennel's errors, especially as to the breadth of the peninsula at its Southern extremity—between Mangalore and Madras, about 40 miles—and in the positions of the chief towns.

The
beginning of
the Great
Trigonometri-
cal Survey.

Colonel Colin Mackenzie's labours ended in a new map of Mysore, which has been referred to above. The map prefixed to Colonel Wilks' *History of Mysoor* (1808) is specifically stated to have been laid from the "late Surveys of Mysore" by Colonel Mackenzie. It was apparently specially constructed by Mackenzie and presented to Wilks as "a mark of sincere regard" by Colonel Mackenzie. This is an excellent map. A copy of the same map seems to have been forwarded by Mackenzie to Buchanan, who, through its aid, as above remarked, corrected the many errors of Major Crawford's map, which he used for his publication.

Mackenzie's
new map of
Mysore.

In 1818, the head-quarters and control of the Trigonometrical Survey were transferred from Madras to Calcutta. Under the guidance of General J. T. Walker, who became Superintendent of the Trigonometrical Survey in 1861, the geodetic work of Lambton and others was widely expanded. The Vizagapatam, Bangalore and Cape Comorin base-lines were re-measured and all

Further
extension of
work in
Mysore.

that great work, whose results are embodied in the volumes of the *Account of the operations of the Great Trigonometrical Survey of India*, was accomplished. In so far as this State is concerned, the heights of numerous conspicuous hills and points throughout the country have not only been fixed by the Great Trigonometrical Survey, but also continuous lines of levels have been carried in various directions that admit of the work done in both the Irrigation and Roads and Buildings' Branches closing on fixed bench marks, thus affording an opportunity for recording such a network of levels (unexampled in probably any other part of India) as must prove of invaluable service in all future Engineering operations—irrigation, navigation, drainage, water supply, roads, railways, etc.

Trigonometrical Stations.

The following statement gives the number of Stations of the Great Trigonometrical Survey, situated in the State :—

District	No. of Stations in the district.	District	No. of Stations in the district.
Bangalore	... 21	Hassan	... 5
Kolar	... 11	Shimoga	... 14
Tumkur	... 10	Kadur	... 5
Mysore	... 7	Chitaldrug	... 9

The Deputy Commissioners of districts and their subordinates are required to inspect annually all the stations in their jurisdiction and to execute repairs to such of those as are in need of the same.

Colin
Mackenzie's
Topographical
Survey.

Early in the nineteenth century, Colonel Colin Mackenzie introduced a system of detailed topographical survey, based on a triangulation of some sort. While Lambton was engaged at Madras, Mackenzie had independently measured bases in Mysore and connected them by triangulation. Mackenzie's labours resulted in a topographical

survey on the one inch scale of over 40,000 square miles in Mysore and the adjacent districts, and it was on this survey that the plane-table was employed in India. Its form, however, and method of use differed materially from those now in vogue. His map of Mysore has been referred to above.

In 1874, the question of a detailed topographical survey of the State was taken up by Sir Richard Meade, then Chief Commissioner in Mysore. The idea of such a survey originated with the Surveyor-General of India, who forwarded some specimens of the Oudh, Rajputana and other surveys, the first being on a scale of four inches to the mile and all the rest on one inch. He also sent a few sheets of revenue details on scales of 32 and 16 inches. Major B. R. Branfil, of the Great Trigonometrical Survey of India, visited Bangalore and drew up a draft scheme for the Topographical Branch of the Mysore Survey and submitted the same to the Chief Commissioner on 20th July 1874. His proposal, in brief, was to form a topographical branch of the Mysore Survey, whose duty it should be to compile a map from existing materials utilizing to the utmost the topographical details of the Cadastral Survey, particularly the boundaries, cultivated areas, etc., and to provide itself such details as cannot be adequately shewn or undertaken by the fiscal Surveyors. For this purpose, he considered it indispensable, whatever else might be required, that a minute network of minor triangulation should be spread over the country dependent on the Great Trigonometrical Survey triangulation, and so extended as to furnish sufficient accurately fixed points to render the cadastral village maps capable of incorporation in general (smaller scale) maps. This minor triangulation was to be of a double kind, primary and secondary; the primary, for filling up the great tracts left between the Great Trigonometrical

Detailed
Topographical
Survey.

Survey lines (or series) with a network of large triangles of an adequate degree of accuracy to be obtained only by a high class instrument (the 10-inch or 12-inch Theodolite) and the secondary, for breaking up the large triangles into an internal network of small triangles, and a host of fixed points accurately determined from them. The triangulation required was, in fact, designed to furnish a complete skeleton map of the State, shewing the position (latitude, longitude and height above sea) of all the conspicuous landmarks that exist, either natural or artificial. The primary triangulation was to be done at once commencing from the north-west and the secondary was to follow the survey and demarcation, the demarcation preceding the secondary triangulation. To supplement the cadastral survey work, and to some extent to make up for its deficiencies, the topographical branch of the survey was specially to take up hill-drawing, with the plane table, and other subsidiary instruments. The standard scale of the topographical maps for India, *i.e.*, one inch to one mile, was to be adopted for the State. A prominent feature of this scheme was the great multiplication of fixed Trigonometrical points, required to work up the village maps into their proper geographic position, shape and size, as well as to base the hill-drawing on. As it was also contemplated that a minute register should be kept along with the plane table, whenever that instrument (and the plane table is a true triangulating instrument) is used to fix a fresh point, or to run a traverse with, not only would hill-drawing be easily checked and errors detected but also a larger or smaller scale map could be constructed afresh without further survey. As regards the production and publication of the final topographical maps, a new map office and department for the maps produced was not deemed necessary, as it was hoped that the necessary reductions and reproduction might be done in one of the

existing map offices at Madras, Poona, Dehra Dun or Calcutta. As regards general supervision, it was suggested that the same should be under one of the Superintendents of Survey in India, either under the Surveyor-General of India, who was also Superintendent of Topographical and Revenue Surveys in Bengal, or under the Superintendent of the Great Trigonometrical Survey of India, who since the days of Colonel Waugh (1843-1861) was also Superintendent of the Trigonometrical and Topographical Surveys and had had several special topographical surveys under him, for the most part outside of Bengal, or under the Superintendents of the Madras or Bombay Revenue Survey parties. If none of these Superintendents could accept the supervision, it was suggested that a local Superintendent might be appointed to the responsibility and nominal charge "on condition that he should submit a full professional report annually to one of the abovementioned Superintendents, who would examine and report professionally on the quality of the work and the amount of progress made." Major Branfill also thought it desirable to add that "a few natives of the Province should be trained in topographical surveying, in order that His Highness the Maharaja on coming of age may find amongst his own countrymen some technical knowledge and skill in a Department closely connected with the material prosperity and progress of the country." The proposal of Major Branfill was accepted, Lieutenant Colonel R. H. Sankey, then Chief Engineer of Mysore, generally agreeing with it, except as to the scale of the map to be produced. He showed a general inclination for a map on a scale of two inches to the mile for all ordinary purposes. What made the scheme practical was the work which had already been accomplished. At the time this proposal was put forward, there were the following data available: three lines of the great triangulation of India; one from the north to

south, and one from east to west, both passing through Bangalore, and one from Chandragutti, on the extreme north-west of the State, running southward along its western boundary, as far as Coorg. There was also in progress the cadastral village maps on the scale of eight inches to one mile, besides sundry desultory Surveys for irrigation, roads, ghats, railways, or other purposes. The detailed Topographical Survey on the lines indicated above commenced in April 1876, and was carried out by officers of the Survey of India under the orders of the Surveyor-General. Triangulation was completed in 1884-85, and the detailed Topographical Survey in September 1886. The total cost of the operations was Rs. 8½ lakhs. The Survey was on the scale of one inch to the mile, except in the case of State forests, which was on the four-inch scale. The whole extended to 70 standard sheets of maps. Unfortunately, the different redistributions of districts and taluks interfered with much of their utility. The map of Mysore State published in 1893 under the direction of Colonel H. R. Thuiller, R. E., Surveyor-General of India, was laid out from this Survey (1876-1886). It is on a scale of one inch-16 inches.

Revenue
Survey.

As regards the system of Revenue Survey adopted in Mysore, see *ante* Chapter II—Revenue Departments, Section 1(a)—Revenue Survey and Settlement.

Forest
Surveys.

As for measures adopted in Mysore for the systematic surveying and mapping of the State Forests in Mysore, see *ante* Chapter II—Revenue Departments, Section 3—Forest Administration.

SECTION 2.—ARCHÆOLOGICAL SURVEY.

Early
History.

Though the organization of a Department for conducting a regular Archæological Survey of the State for the

purpose of studying and conserving its antiquities dates from comparatively recent times, it is of interest to note the early attempt made to get some control over them. It is related of Chikka-Dēva-Rāja, who ruled from 1672 to 1704, that he had lists and copies made of the inscriptions throughout his Kingdom. His object, however, was to check the endowments made to them and to see that the purpose of the grants was duly carried out. The register so compiled was unfortunately one of those in the royal library, which was ordered by Tīpu Sultān to be taken for boiling the *kulti*, or gram, for the horses. On the restoration of the Kingdom to the present dynasty in 1799, Colonel Colin Mackenzie, when he was in charge of the Survey operations in the State, took copies of several thousands of inscriptions he found scattered throughout the country. These formed part of his wellknown collection, which is now lodged partly at the Oriental Mss. Library at Madras and partly at the India Office Library in London. Neither of these collections, even if they were available, prove of any great value, because, for purposes of critical study of inscriptions on modern lines, mechanical facsimiles are an absolute necessity.

The beginnings of the Archæological Survey in Mysore may be said to date from the year 1865, when Mr. Lewin Bowring, Chief Commissioner of Mysore and Coorg, deputed Major Dixon to obtain photographic copies of inscriptions in various places in the State, where they were known to be numerous such as Chitaldrug, Harihar and Belgami. These photographs were placed in the hands of Mr. Lewis Rice, then Director of Public Instruction in Mysore, for decipherment and translation. In 1879, Mr. Rice issued a volume called *Mysore Inscriptions*, containing translations of all the inscriptions photographed and of some others collected by himself. In 1884, Mr. Rice was appointed Director of Archæological

The modern
beginnings of
the Survey.

Researches, in addition to his duties as Education Secretary to Government. In 1886, he published a volume of *Coorg Inscriptions*. In March 1888, a regular Archæological Department was formed under him. In 1889, he published the volume of *Sravana Belgola Inscriptions*, consisting of 144 Jaina inscriptions collected at Sravana Belgola. So much interest was excited by this work, that, in April 1890, Mr. Lewis Rice was, at the instance of Sir K. Seshadri Iyer, then Dewan, relieved of his other duties and Archæological work received his sole attention from then, except during a short period, when he was employed in the issuing of the second edition of the *Mysore Gazetteer*.

First Results
of the Survey.

The exploration and copying of all the inscriptions found in the country on an organized basis, district by district, were now entered upon. The results of the Archæological Survey were published in successive volumes of the series known as the *Epigraphia Carnatica* according to the list given below. The last of these (No. IX) bears the date 1905, but was actually issued in 1906. The total number of inscriptions thus collected and published with translations in the above volumes is nearly 9,000.

LIST OF PUBLICATIONS IN THE *Epigraphia Carnatica*
SERIES WITH DATES.

Number of volume	Name of volume	Date of issue
I	Coorg Inscriptions	1886
II	Inscriptions at Sravana Belgola	1889
III	Do in Mysore District, Part I	1894
IV	Do do Part II	1898
V	Do in Hassan District	1902
VI	Do in Kadur District	1901
VII	Do in Shimoga District, Part I	1902
VIII	Do do Part II	1902
IX	Do in Bangalore District	1905
X	Do in Kolar District	1905
XI	Do in Chitaldrug District	1902
XII	Do in Tumkur District	1904

In 1909, Mr. Rice issued a volume entitled *Mysore and Coorg from the Inscriptions* summing up the historical and other information contained in the above volumes. The results of the Survey have exceeded expectation. The discovery of the edicts of Asoka at Siddapura and other places in Molakalmuru Taluk, Chitaldrug District, by Mr. Rice in 1892 has been said to mark an epoch in Indian Archæology. It has lifted the veil for centuries back from the ancient history of India, especially that of the south. The Jaina traditions relating to Bhadrabāhu and Chandra Gupta have excited great interest in learned circles. The inscriptions at Sravana Belgola have established beyond doubt the antiquity of the Jains and their priority to the Buddhists, while at the same time, they have furnished new information of the utmost importance regarding Kannada literature and its antiquity. It is worthy of note that though the Jain sect is one of the most ancient in India, its discovery should have been first made in Mysore. The connection of the Sātavāhanas or Āndhras with this State has been established, and this has served to bridge the gap between the fall of the Mauryas and the rise of the Kadam-bas. The forgotten dynasties of the Mahāvalis or Bānas, and of the Pallavas and Nonambas or Nōlambas have been brought to light. The Gangas, who ruled Mysore for nearly the whole of the first millennium of the Christian era, but whose very name had dropped into oblivion, have been restored to history. Much light has been thrown on the part played by the Rāshtrakūtas. The chronology of the Chōlas has been finally fixed. Information relating to the Chālukyas and Kalachuryas has been much extended. In regard to the powerful indigenous line of Hoysala kings, their birth-place has been discovered and their annals exhibited in great detail. Of later dynasties, including those of Vijayanagar and the Mysore rulers, it is sufficient to say that new and important information has been gathered for all periods down to the latest.

Attention was also paid to the collection and transcription of several ancient works in manuscript in Kannada and Sanskrit. These works were sent to the Oriental Mss. Library at Mysore for preservation. The following classical works in Kannada language were also published in the series known as *Bibliotheca Carnatica* series :—

Karnātakabhāṣha Bhūṣhana by Nāgavarma	...	1884
Karnāṭaka Sabdānusāsana by Bhattakalanka-		
dēva	1890
Pampa Rāmāyana by Nāgachandra	...	1892
Pampa Bhārata by Pampa	...	1898
Kavirājamārga by Nripatunga	...	1898
Kāvyaśāloka by Nāgavarma	...	1903

With regard to the ancient architectural monuments in the State, brief descriptions of a few of the most important of these were given in the introductions to the volumes of *Epigraphia Carnatica*. A list of *European Tombs and Monuments in Mysore* was compiled in 1906, with the epitaphs and inscriptions on them, to form one of the Indian Monumental Series of the Imperial Government. In the conservation of ancient buildings and monuments of archæological interest in the State, some of the important items which have received attention are :—(1) The restoration of the ruined temple of Kēdārēśvara at Halebid, (2) renewing the ornamental watch-towers erected on crowning heights at the four cardinal points round Bangalore by its founder Kempe Gowda and placing them under proper custodians; and (3) putting up a railing round the Asoka inscriptions at Molkalmuru.

Progress
during 1906
to 1922.

Mr. Rice retired from service at the end of June 1906 and was succeeded by Mr. R. Narasimhachar, his former Assistant. During the period of sixteen years ranging from July 1906 to July 1922, the work of the search for

inscriptions was continued with vigour and several inscriptions which had so far escaped notice were collected. Some of the inscriptions which had not been satisfactorily deciphered during the earlier years were now thoroughly revised. A summary of the contents of these inscriptions and, in the case of important epigraphs, their facsimiles, were published in the *Annual Reports* of the Department, which owing to this and other causes attracted wider attention both in India and Europe. Large numbers of records having been collected for each District, it was arranged to issue *Supplements* to the various volumes of the *Epigraphia Carnatica* Series with the texts, transliteration, translation, etc., of the new records. Under this arrangement, the Kannada texts of the inscriptions of the Mysore and Hassan *Supplements* have been fully printed, those of the Bangalore and Tumkur *Supplements* have been sent to the Press and those of the Kolar *Supplement* have been got all but ready for the press. The *Sravana Belgola* volume has been thoroughly revised with 350 new records included and sent to the press. A general *Index* to the inscriptions published in the *Epigraphia Carnatica* volumes and an *Index to the Annual Reports* of the Department from 1906 to 1920 have also been completed and sent to the press. The newly discovered inscriptions have brought to light several facts, not known before, with regard to the Kadambas, the Rāshtrakūtas, the Chālukyas, the Cholas, the Santāras, the Kongalvas, the Chengalvas, the rulers of Punnād, Vijayanagar and Mysore, besides the chiefs of Avati, Bēlūr, Hadinādu, Hole-Narsipur, Hulikal, Sugatur, Ummattur and Yelahanka. They have added considerably to our knowledge, especially with regard to the Gangas, whose history may now be regarded as almost definitely settled. The work of the Department in connection with this dynasty has been appreciated by several competent scholars.

Collection of
Mss.

Attention has also been paid to the collection and transcription of manuscripts. With regard to these, it may be stated that two of Bhāsa's dramas, namely *Svapnavāsavadatta* and *Pratījnayaugandharāyana*, were discovered by the Department before they were published in Travancore. Another important find has been the Jaina work, *Lōka-vibhāga* which supplies the date *Saka* 380 as the 22nd year of the reign of Simhavarma, the Pallava King of Kānchi, thus furnishing a welcome clue to Pallava Chronology. Among other manuscripts of interest are the medical work *Kalyānakāraka* of Ugrāditya, a contemporary of the Rāshtrakūta King Amoghavarsha I and of the Eastern Chālukyan King Kali Vishnuvardhana, in which the distinction between prevention and cure is regarded as the fundamental basis of the healing art; and *Alankārasudhānidhi* of Sāyanāchārya, which gives helpful information regarding the Vijayanagar prince, Sangama II, and Sāyanāchārya's younger brother, Bhōganātha. The revision of the important Kannada work *Sabdānusāsana* has also been in hand during this period.

Numismatics.

Numismatics also received considerable attention. The coins relating to the Āndhrabhritya Kings Mudānanda and Chutukadānanda and to their Viceroy, probably stationed at Chitaldrug; the Mahārathis, Jadakana Kalaya and Saijakana Chalaka; the silver *dinari* of the Emperor Augustus; and the Chinese coin supposed to have been issued during the reign of the Emperor Han Wuti, were discovered at Chitaldrug. Some Hoysala gold coins, including *panams* not noticed before, were found at Halebīd. The silver coins in the Bangalore Museum were examined and identified by the Department. A coin cabinet was formed for the use of the office, containing a large collection of gold, silver and copper coins which have been from time to time described and illustrated in the *Annual Reports*.

Architecture and sculpture did not escape notice. Several temples built in the Dravidian and Hoysala styles of architecture, most of them not noticed before, were described and illustrated in the *Annual Reports*. A large number of individual works of art, signed works of artists, portrait statues, and *vīragals*, *māstikals*, Naga stones and other sculptures of archæological interest were published for the first time. The work done by the Department under this head has induced authorities on Indian art and sculpture not only to take greater interest in the artistic works of Mysore but also to form a more favourable estimate of their merit as works of art. Three monographs on the temples at Somanāthpur, Bēlūr, and Doddagaddavalli, forming numbers I to III in the series entitled *Architecture and Sculpture in Mysore*, were published in 1917 and 1919. A monograph on the Halebīd temples was also projected.

Architecture
and
Sculpture.

Excavations on a small scale were conducted at Chitaldrug, Talkad and Halebīd. Old coins, pottery and other antiquities were unearthed at these excavations. A few cromlechs were also opened and ancient pottery and other relics obtained. Detailed descriptions of the work done in connection with these excavations will be found included in the Department's *Annual Reports*.

Excavation
Work.

With regard to the conservation of the ancient monuments in the State, Government passed an order in 1920, laying down a scheme for their proper preservation and systematic inspection. In accordance with this order, a revised and classified list of important monuments in the State has been drawn up and issued. Definite rules have also been passed in the matter for the guidance of Revenue and Public Works officers throughout the State.

Conservation
of Ancient
Monuments.

Recent Work
of the
Department.

Mr. Narasimhachar retired from service in July 1922 and was succeeded by Dr. R. Shama Sastry, who was appointed Director of Archæological Researches, in addition to his own duties as Curator of the Oriental Library, Mysore. The administrative control of the Department was vested in the Mysore University and in September 1922, the Archæological office was shifted from Bangalore to Mysore. The work of the department continues to be conducted on the same lines as before. Vigorous efforts are being made to complete the Supplemental Volumes of inscriptions referred to above. The completion of the revised editions of *Inscriptions at Sravana Belgola* and the *Karnāṭaka Sabdānūśāsāna* was undertaken by Mr. Narasimhachar, after his retirement, and these volumes were issued by him in 1923. Rules have been issued by Government impressing on all officers of the Muzrai, Revenue and Public Works Departments the necessity for their consulting the Archæological Department in all matters relating to the preservation of ancient monuments in the State. A Museum is being formed as an adjunct of the department. A change has been made in the form of the *Annual Report* by publishing *in extenso* all the inscriptions discovered during the year in the Report of the year itself instead of giving mere notices of them in it and postponing their full publication till sufficient matter is collected for a Supplemental volume. An attempt has also been made in the *Annual Report* for 1923 to fix definitely the age of the Guptas, Bānas, Kadambas and Gangas in the light of inscriptional, astronomical and other data available on the subject.

-Establish-
ment: Past
and Present.

When the Department was organized in 1888, only a temporary establishment costing Rs. 7,576 per annum was sanctioned, exclusive of the pay of Mr. Rice, who was then also the Director of Public Instruction. As the work

of the Department increased, additional establishment was sanctioned. A separate establishment costing Rs. 183 per mensem was allowed to the Government Press from the Archæological budget, for the printing of the Archæological works in the Government Press. The establishment was, in 1898, made a permanent one. The cost of the Department reached its maximum in 1903-04, when it was estimated at Rs. 40,315. As the work of the Department approached completion, a reduction of six hands, costing Rs. 265 per mensem, was effected in the establishment attached to the Department in August 1905. Again, on the retirement of Mr. Rice, the cost of the establishment was further reduced by Rs. 5,304 per annum. The whole of the establishment maintained at the Government Press for doing the work of the Archæological Department was also dispensed with. Mr. Narasimhachar was placed in charge of the Department first under the designation of the "Officer in charge of Archæological Researches in Mysore," subject to the administrative control of the Inspector-General of Education in Mysore. In December 1916, his official designation was changed to Director of Archæological Researches in Mysore. When he retired in 1923, the cost of the establishment was still further reduced and the administrative control over it was transferred to the University of Mysore. The present cost of the Department is estimated in the budget for 1928-29 at Rs. 20,900 comprising of a Director who is also Curator of the Oriental Mss. Library at Mysore, an Assistant and the necessary clerical staff.

SECTION 3.—ETHNOGRAPHIC SURVEY.

An Ethnographic Survey of the State has been completed under the orders of Government passed on 22nd May 1903. This survey was undertaken in consonance

Origin and
Progress of
the Survey.

with a general Anthropometric and Ethnographic Survey of India inaugurated by the Government of India in 1901, after the Census of India of that year, at the suggestion of leading anthropologists in Great Britain and Ireland. The Survey as a whole was under the guidance of Mr. (later Sir Herbert) Risley, and Southern India, including Mysore and the associated States of Travancore and Cochin, was placed in charge of Mr. E. Thurston, then Superintendent, Madras Government Museum. Mr. Thurston, however, undertook only the anthropometric part of the Survey in Mysore, leaving the Ethnographic portion to be done by a local officer. In 1903, Government appointed the late Mr. H. V. Nanjundayya, then General and Revenue Secretary to Government, to undertake this Survey in addition to his own duties.

Its publica-
tions.

With the aid of a small special staff, Mr. Nanjundayya carried out the requisite investigations and from time to time issued tentative Bulletins incorporating in them notes collected in regard to thirty-four of the main Castes and Tribes found in the State. The notes collected in connection with fifty more Castes are awaiting publication. The question of completing the Survey and of issuing a consolidated volume uniform with the "Tribes and Castes of Southern India" and similar publications has been now taken up by Government. The notes included in this volume on certain of the Castes and Tribes of the State in Volume I, Chapter VI (*Ethnology*), are partly based on the information collected by this Survey.

SECTION 4.—METEOROLOGICAL SURVEY.

Initiation of
Meteorolo-
gical
observation
in Mysore.

The inception of the State Meteorological Department has to be sought for in the necessity felt, some years ago, for a widespread record of observations for the scientific study of the weather in India. The work of the local

department has accordingly been in close co-operation with the Imperial Meteorological Department. The Imperial Department grew out of a provincial system, which, quite apart from the Madras Observatory, which has been in existence since 1796, and the Bombay Observatory since 1841, was organized in 1865 under the orders of the Secretary of State for India in Council, and is the result of the recommendations of a special Commission appointed by the Government of India for considering the necessity for a systematic record of meteorological phenomena in order to furnish data for the investigation of the relations of climate and weather and disease in India and the collection of all data that might be of value in connection with proposed sanitary improvements and projects. The Provincial Departments were five in number, but they had no unifying head for co-ordinating their work. They collected some useful data, but these were found to be of little use for the investigation of the larger phases and changes of weather in India. The Government of India accordingly decided in 1875 to imperialize the system, and sanctioned the necessary arrangements for the extension of the work of observations to the whole of India, for the adoption of uniform methods of observation, and for the systematic discussion of the observations as a whole. The Imperial Department thus formed was placed under Mr. H. F. Blanford, a scientific officer of proved abilities, who securely laid the foundations for the present efficiency of the Department. Though he was invested by the Government of India with full powers to give effect to the sanctioned reforms, he was too fully occupied to give attention to extending the domain of meteorological work to the larger Indian States. To his successor Sir John Eliot, K.C.I.E., the present constitution of the Department is mainly due. As a result of his discussion with Sir K. Seshadri Iyer, then Dewan of the State, it was

resolved, in 1891, to establish a set of local stations under favourable conditions, with one of them as a first class observatory. The main object in view, in opening these stations, was to secure and record observations concerning the conditions of the weather in different parts of the State as a help to making a forecast of the character of the seasons. Mr. John Cook, who was at the time Principal of the Central College, Bangalore, was deputed to Calcutta in November 1891, and on his return he submitted proposals for the organization of a Meteorological Department in the State. Mr. Cook was placed in charge of the Department, under the designation of Meteorological Reporter to Government which was subsequently changed into that of Director of Meteorology in Mysore. Four second class observatories were established during 1892-93 at Bangalore, Mysore, Hassan and Chitaldrug. The necessary instruments were obtained from the Government of India and observations began to be recorded from 1st April 1892 at Bangalore, from 1st August 1892 at Chitaldrug, from 20th November 1892 at Hassan and from 10th May 1893 at Mysore. In 1893-94, the Bangalore Observatory was built, close to the Central College, on the model of the Meteorological Observatory at Alipore, Calcutta, and its status was on 1st January 1895 raised to the first class. The self-recording instruments which had been ordered for in the interval were also installed in the new building, and since the date mentioned, this observatory has been working uninterruptedly as an Observatory of the first class and has earned a name for itself. It is, in several respects, in the words of the late Sir John Eliot, the best equipped Meteorological Observatory in India. A high level Observatory, situated as it is in the centre of the Indian Peninsula, at the height of 3,000 feet above the sea level, its recorded results have been of the greatest value for a proper study of the Meteorology of India.

In 1907, at the suggestion of the Director-General of Indian Observatories, the two second class observatories at Hassan and Chitaldrug were reduced to the third class. In 1912, the Observatory at Mysore was, as a measure of retrenchment, reduced to the third class. As the readings taken at 8 hours (local time) were considered sufficient in the second class observatories, observations are taken at 8, 10 and 16 daily, while only one set of observation is taken at 8 hours in the third class observatories. All the meteorological observatories now in India are of the third class, except those at the Presidency towns and at the capitals of a few Indian States.

Recent
changes.

The observations taken at 8 hours at Bangalore, Mysore and Chitaldrug are daily telegraphed to Simla for the preparation of the Daily Weather Report. The new method of despatching weather telegrams initiated by the Imperial Department, *viz.*, giving the actual readings of the various instruments, was adopted permanently from 1st January 1924 as in British India. The Bangalore Observatory also sends weather telegrams to Bombay and Madras. The Hassan Observatory has since 1893 been only recording observations at 8 hours as the despatch of telegrams to Madras from that Station was stopped as a measure of retrenchment. The results of observations of all the observatories are daily sent to Bangalore by post. The registers of the daily 8 hours observations with copies of the daily weather telegrams are forwarded from all the four observatories punctually every month to the Meteorological Office, Simla. The monthly Register of the daily 10 hours and 16 hours observations at Bangalore is despatched to Calcutta.

Daily
observations :
despatch of
telegrams,
etc.

About ten years ago, following European and American Meteorologists, the Imperial Department of Meteorology in India began the study of atmospheric changes in the

Pilot Balloon
Observations.

higher levels, first by means of kites, and then with the aid of pilot balloons. This was tried at a few selected centres like Simla, Agra, etc., in Upper India and soon the need for such a centre in Southern India was felt. At the suggestion of the Director-General of Observatories, pilot balloon observations were started at the Bangalore Observatory on 19th May 1915, by means of a theodolite for investigating the velocity and direction of upper air currents at different heights. The observations thus secured give valuable information regarding the movements in the upper strata of the atmosphere. From 1st January 1924, the results of these balloon flights are being telegraphed to Simla on all the days on which the flights are possible. At Simla, they are made use of in making up the daily Forecast of Weather. On certain specified days, during the year, balloon flights are also conducted at the Bangalore Observatory, the results of which are used by the International Society for the investigation of Upper Air.

**Rain Gauges
in the State.**

In 1893, there were in the State 150 rain gauges distributed among the eight districts as follows:—Bangalore, 25; Kolar, 19; Tumkur, 27; Mysore, 21; Shimoga, 17; Kadur, 11; Hassan, 15 and Chitaldrug, 16. Till then, they were under the control of the Public Works Department. In that year, the control over them was transferred to the Meteorological Reporter. In 1924, the number of gauges stood at 226 distributed thus:—Bangalore, 30; Kolar, 28; Tumkur, 41; Mysore, 37; Shimoga, 24; Kadur, 19; Hassan, 24; and Chitaldrug, 23. All the rain gauges are subject to annual inspection by the Revenue Officers. The diameter of the rain gauges in the State is 4·7 inches as against 5 inches, which is the diameter of the rain gauges in British India. One advantage of the gauge in use in the State is that 10 cents of rain collected in this gauge correspond to

1 oz. and an apothecary's four or eight ounce measure can be used in case of accident to the specially graduated glass. These gauges were in use before the control over them was taken over by the Meteorological Department. Their retention was specially confirmed by Government in an order dated 28th August 1896.

The observations recorded in the four observatories are published annually. In addition to this, a Report on Rain Registration in Mysore is also published every year. The Hourly Records of the Weather Elements obtained with the self-recording instruments at the Bangalore Observatory have been tabulated up-to-date and two volumes of Mysore Meteorological Memoirs embodying the Hourly Means of the various elements for the periods of 1895-1898 and 1895-1906 have been published. As Government have ordered the publication of the Hourly values in annual volumes beginning with 1907, they are being thus issued.

Publication of
observations.

The work done by the Mysore Meteorological Department forms an integral part of the work done by the Imperial Meteorological Department for the benefit of meteorological science with special reference to India. Apart from the useful local work it does, the policy of the Department, as directed by Government, has been to co-operate with the Imperial Meteorological Department in collecting data for a comprehensive study of the meteorology of India as a whole. Mysore forms a Meteorological Province by itself with certain broad and well defined features. Before the Mysore Department was constituted, there were no accurate and reliable data concerning the climatological and weather conditions of Mysore. The statistics collected during the past thirty-four years have been utilized by the Revenue, Agricultural and the Public Works Departments.

General view
of the
Department's
work.

SECTION 5.—GAZETTEERS AND REPORTS.

Earliest
statistical
account of
Mysore.
Buchanan-
Hamilton's
*A journey
through
Mysore.*

As stated above, almost the first statistical account of the State was that drawn up by Dr. Francis Buchanan-Hamilton in his work *A journey from Madras through the countries of Mysore, Canara and Malabar*. Every page of it teems with valuable information, but the disjointed style inseparable from the nature of a daily *Journal* makes it difficult to consult, and it is much to be regretted that the accomplished author had not the opportunity of throwing the work into a more suitable form for publication. The printing of the work was undertaken before he reached England, and before he could, as he desired to do, abridge it and recast it for publication. He had, therefore, to content himself with merely revising the manuscript and passing it for the press. The result is a work, which though valuable for the information it contains, is prolix to a degree. At the time Buchanan-Hamilton was commissioned to undertake a journey from Madras through the countries of Mysore, Kanara and Malabar, *i.e.*, the territories forming the restored kingdom of Mysore and the large tracts of country ceded to the British as the result of the Wars with Tipu Sultān, he was employed in the Medical service of the East India Company on the Bengal Establishment and had been well known for his valuable botanical researches in Burma and Chitagong. He was a Fellow of the Royal Society and of the Society of Antiquaries of London and was well fitted to undertake the task allotted to him. In his instructions, dated 20th February 1800, Marquis Wellesley directed Buchanan's attention to a variety of subjects on which he desired him to report after careful inquiries. Among these were agriculture including vegetation, cattle, farms, natural productions, arts, manufactures and commerce, climate and seasons, mines, quarries, minerals and mineral

springs, people, their condition, their sects and tribes, weights and measures and currency in use, etc. Buchanan began his travel on 23rd April 1800 at Madras and ended it at the same place on 6th July 1801. His work entitled "*A Journey from Madras through the countries of Mysore, Kanara and Malabar*" was published under the authority and patronage of the Honourable the Directors of the East India Company in 1807 in three quarto volumes and subsequently reprinted in two volumes octavo at Madras, in 1870. Though as remarked above, tedious in parts, it gives an excellent picture of the condition of that larger Mysore which formed Tipu's Kingdom. The disastrous effects of successive wars on the people and the country are writ large on every page of this work. Buchanan's Diary, however, is in the main, descriptive, and is written in the chronicler's vein. It can hardly be described as a regular Survey, except in the larger sense of the term. Still, it is of vast importance for a correct understanding of the condition of the country and the people, their arts and manufactures, and their habits and manners, at the restoration to power of the present ruling house of Mysore.

While Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton was engaged in his travels, Colonel Colin Mackenzie, to whose work a partial reference has been made above, was commissioned by the Governor-General to make a survey of Mysore. He was allowed only three assistants, with medical officer as surgeon and naturalist. In spite of many difficulties, however, the survey was continued till 1807. The result was not only a valuable contribution to geographical knowledge, but considerable materials were also acquired of the statistics and history of the country. These were recorded in folio volumes transmitted to the East India Company. Copies of eight volumes, attested by Colonel Mackenzie's signature, are

Colonel Colin
Mackenzie's
Report on
Mysore and
Mss.

deposited among the records of the Mysore Residency at Bangalore. The most novel and important of the discoveries made by Colonel Mackenzie was that of the existence of the sect of Jains in India, which he was the first to bring to notice. His manuscript collections, according to the catalogue issued by Professor H. H. Wilson, include, 1,568 manuscripts of literary works, 2,070 local tracts, 8,076 copies of inscriptions, 2,150 translations, 2,709 plans and drawings and 146 images and antiquities. The manuscripts of his collection are now lodged partly in the Madras Oriental Manuscript Library and partly in the India Office Library, London. The manuscripts relating to Mysore are in Kannada, Telugu and Marāthi languages, and include, besides collections of inscriptions, local tracts and historical notices. Among these may be mentioned the following few:—Account of the genealogy of Kings (Telugu); Account of Hale Bidu in Mysore (Telugu); Account of Chitra (Kal) durga (Marathi); Account of Seringapatam (Marathi); the genealogy of Vishnuvardhana (Kannada), etc.

Dr. Benjamin
Heyne's
Statistical
Fragments of
Mysore.

The first Surgeon and naturalist attached to the Mysore Survey was Dr. Benjamin Heyne, whose papers on a variety of subjects relating to Mysore and the adjoining countries were published in London in 1814 under the title of *Tracts, Historical and Statistical, on India*. His *Statistical Fragments on Mysore* was included in the *Selections from the Records of the Mysore Commissioner's Office* issued at Bangalore, under the authority of the Government of India, in 1864. It is an attempt at a brief description of Mysore, its people and products. Heyne was a naturalist and so gave some prominence in his account to meteorology, botanical features, geological and mineral aspects. Other information contained in his *Fragments* is an account of the method of "making

steel in the Mysore Country." Dr. Heyne subsequently became the East India Company's Botanist at Madras, and, in that capacity, was sent up to Bangalore to induce the people to grow potatoes. In 1805, he reported that they had actually been on sale in the bazaars, and that he would soon be able to supply Madras with them. His economic and botanical reports are included in the four volumes containing his own and Dr. Roxburgh's researches into the botanical condition of the country and the state of its indigenous industries now lodged in the Madras Record Office.

Dr. Heyne's successor in the post of Surgeon-naturalist was the gifted Dr. John Leyden. Beyond a few anecdotes and verses in his *Poetical Remains* published in London in 1819, it has been impossible to secure anything of his specially devoted to this State, though it is on record that "he drew up some useful papers, which he communicated to the Government, relating to the mountainous strata and their mineral indications; as to the diseases, medicines and remedies of the natives of Mysore, and the peculiarities of their habits and constitution by which they might be exposed to disease; as to the different crops cultivated in Mysore and their rotation; and to the languages of Mysore, and to their respective relations." Heyne's observations were confined to the north and east; Leyden's papers, if traced, would give us information regarding the south and west.

Dr. John
Leyden's
missing
papers.

It has been remarked of Leyden by Sir John Malcolm, a former Resident of Mysore, that "he rose by the power of native genius, from the humblest origin to a very distinguished rank in the literary world. His studies included almost every branch of human science, and he was alike ardent in the pursuit of all. The greatest power of his mind was perhaps shown in his acquisition of modern and ancient languages. . . ."

His end was most sad. On the conquest of Java in 1811, he accompanied the Governor-General, Lord Minto, to that island, and hearing at Batavia of a library containing a valuable collection of oriental manuscripts, hastened to explore it. The long low room, an old depository of effects belonging to the Dutch Government, had been shut up for some time, and the confined air was strongly impregnated with the poisonous quality which has made Batavia the grave of so many Europeans. Without the precaution of having it aired, he rushed eagerly in to examine its treasures, was seized in consequence with a mortal fever, and died on the 28th August, after three days' illness, in the 36th year of his age.

Southey wished "that Java had remained in the hands of the enemy, so Leyden were alive," while Sir Walter Scott paid the following tribute to his memory in the *Lord of the Isles* :—

His bright and brief career is o'er,
And mute his tuneful strains ;
Quenched is his lamp of varied lore,
That loved the light of song to pour ;
A distant and a deadly shore
Has Leyden's cold remains.

The centenary of Leyden's birth was celebrated with public rejoicings in 1875 at his native village of Denholm, on the banks of the Teviot, in Scotland.

Colonel Mark
Wilks' History
of Mysore and
Report on the
Interior
Administra-
tion of Mysore.

Colonel Mark Wilks, distinguished as the historian of Mysore, at which Court he was for a time Resident, published his well-known work under the title of *Historical Sketches of the South of India in an attempt to trace the History of Mysoor*, in three volumes quarto, the first of which appeared in London in 1810, and the last two not till 1817, owing to his appointment during the interval as Governor of St. Helena, which office he held

until the imprisonment on that island of the Emperor Napoleon Buonaparte. "It displays," as an old reviewer justly observes, "a degree of research, acumen, vigour, and elegance, that renders it a work of standard importance in English literature." A reprint, in two volumes octavo, was published in Madras in 1869. Prior to the publication of his *History*, in November 1804, Wilks had written and submitted to the Governor-General in Council, a *Report on the interior administration, resources and expenditure of the Government of Mysore*, which has been printed and reprinted twice over, once in 1861 and again in 1864. It is one of the papers included in the *Selections from the Records* referred to above. It is a most valuable document for forming a correct idea of the administration of the State during the five years immediately following the restoration of the Hindu Dynasty after the Treaty of 1799.

On the vesting of the Government in the Commissioners appointed by the Governor-General in Council in October 1831, a memorandum in the shape of *Notes on the state of affairs in Mysore* was drawn up for the information of the Governor-General. These *Notes* were intended to form a basis for revision "on passing through the country, until a complete and correct view of its actual state can be fully ascertained and recorded; for at present it has been found exceedingly difficult, from various causes, to obtain correct information either of the past or of the present state of affairs." It was framed "on information derived partly from the public accounts, but principally from the best informed persons, in and out of office; the object being to collect into one general and connected shape, all that is useful to be known" of the country and its revenue and other institutions. The *Notes* treat of Mysore under its six principal divisions, *viz.*, the Faujdaries of Bangalore, Madgiri, Chitaldrug,

Report of the
Commission
Period.

Ashtagram, Manjarabad and Nagar. There is internal evidence to believe that the Report was drawn up by Sir Mark Cubbon, probably in 1834, on his assumption of office as sole Commissioner of Mysore. The Report is a businesslike one and was followed, as foreshadowed, by three Reports, one in the *Nagar Division of Mysore* dated 19th May 1838 by Hudleston Stokes, M. C. S., who was then its Superintendent; another on the *Malnad of the Ashtagram Division* dated 19th December 1839 by Major H. Montgomery, Superintendent of that Division; and a third on the *Chitaldrug Division* dated 1st January 1842 by Captain F. Chalmers, lately Superintendent of that Division. Though styled "Reports," these are really monographs on these Divisions and would be called "Gazetteers" of the Divisions in the language to-day. Of these Reports, that on the Nagar Division is full and comprehensive and contains matter of much interest. All these Reports are included in the *Selections from the Records of the Mysore Commissioner's Office* mentioned above, which was issued, under the authority of the Government of India in 1864, by Mr. Lewin Bowring, then Chief Commissioner of Mysore. Apart from these Reports, Sir Mark Cubbon submitted in 1855 a *General Memorandum* to the Marquis of Dalhousie and since that time Administration Reports were regularly issued until 1891, when it was made quinquennial. Thirty-five years of British administration changed the aspect of the country so much that, by 1867, the need for a handy and authentic digest of extant information on the State was acutely felt. The first step taken towards supplying the want was in June 1867, when a circular was addressed by Mr. C. B. Saunders, the Offg. Chief Commissioner, to the Superintendents of Divisions, directing the compilation for each District of a *Gazetteer* similar to the one then lately published of the Bhandara District in the Central Provinces. In pursuance of these

orders, during the next two years nine manuscript volumes were prepared. Only two, however, came to be printed, namely one for Mysore District, by Mr. H. Wellesley; and one for Kolar, it is presumed, by Mr. B. Krishniengar, C. S. I. Of the remainder, those for Bangalore and Kadur were not completed; the one for Shimoga was prepared by Captain Cumming; that for Hassan by Major W. Hill; that for Tumkur by Major C. Pearce and that for Chitaldrug by Mr. Krishna Rao. The Report on the Census of 1871 by Major Lindsay naturally superseded much of the statistical information contained in these volumes, which moreover widely differed from one another in the treatment of the variety of subjects included in them. In 1872, Mr. Lewin Bowring, till then Chief Commissioner in Mysore, brought out his *Eastern Experiences*, which included much matter of historical and topographical nature.

The design to appoint an Editor who should bring out one work on a uniform plan was next adopted and eventually, in 1873, with the sanction of the Government of India, the duty was entrusted by Sir Richard Meade, then Chief Commissioner, to Mr. B. L. Rice, C. I. E., then Director of Public Instruction in Mysore, whose personal knowledge of the State, its people, its antiquities and its dominant language was unrivalled. He issued in 1876 the *Gazetteer of Mysore and Coorg*, of which two volumes were devoted to Mysore and one to Coorg. The work was well received, the late Sir William Wilson Hunter expressing his warmest approval of it. The work was divided into two volumes, the first treating of Mysore in general, and the second of Mysore by districts, eight in number. In 1897, he brought out, at the direction of Government, a revised edition, also in two volumes, bringing up the statistics to date and adding much valuable fresh information bearing on the geological,

Mr. Rice's
Gazetteer of
Mysore.

historical, and other aspects of the State. He was also responsible for the volume on *Mysore* included in the *Imperial Gazetteer of India*, which was issued in 1908.

Other Reports
and Publica-
tions.

Since the publication of the last edition of the *Gazetteer*, much progress has been recorded in almost every Department of the State. With the cessation of the quinquennial Report on the Administration of the State, the issue of the yearly Report was resumed. Apart from the Reports on the Census operations conducted in the State in the years 1901, 1911 and 1921, which have rendered obsolete the older statistics relating to population and other general statistics, there have been issued many Departmental and other Reports of value to which special references will be found in the different chapters of this *Gazetteer*.

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CHAPTER IX.

MISCELLANEOUS DEPARTMENTS.

SECTION 1—MUZRAI DEPARTMENT.

GENERAL.

The origin
and definition
of the word
“Muzrai.”

THE word “Muzrai” is derived from a Persian word “Mujra” which means deduction or allowance and it was, through colloquial usage, changed into Muzrai and applied generally to an allowance granted for religious or charitable purposes. Hence, all grants made for religious or charitable purposes and for the up-keep of religious and charitable institutions come under the head “Muzrai.”

Muzrai
Department.

The Muzrai Department is entrusted with the administration of revenues of religious and charitable institutions belonging to Hindus and Mahomedans, such as, temples, chatrams or feeding houses, mutts, durgas, masjids, etc., enjoying land and money inams and interest from certain deposits of money lodged by votaries for the fulfilment of certain vows. Subsistence or personal grants, such as *Varushāsanam*, *Nagad Bhatamānyams*, *Yomias*, and other charitable allowances given for the subsistence of the holders, are also administered by the Muzrai Department.

Distinction
between
“Muzrai”
and “Inām.”

Formerly, Muzrai included Inām also. Muzrai and Inām are linked together, and, in many respects, their connection is intimate. After the introduction of the

Inam Settlement into the State, a distinction was made between Muzrai and Inām. At present, all ready money grants come under the head "Muzrai" and all endowments in lands under "Inām."

Prior to the Rendition.

During the administration both of Tīpu Sultān and Pūrnaiya, the Muzrai affairs were managed by the Amildar and the Faujdar under the oral and written orders of the Dewan; and subsequently, His Highness the late Maharaja Krishnaraja Wodeyar Bahadur III kept the control of the institutions under his immediate supervision. On the administration passing into the hands of the British Commission in 1831, the management of these institutions was vested in the Superintendents and their subordinate District officers. In 1852, the Commissioner, Sir Mark Cubbon, considered it expedient that the management of the affairs of the Muzrai institutions throughout the State should be transferred to and placed under the orders of his office, and he issued a set of rules with a view to ensure greater efficiency in the work of the institutions. In 1861 again, on the eve of his departure, Sir Mark Cubbon retransferred the supervision of the institutions to Divisional Superintendents. In 1867, Indian Muzrai Assistant Commissioners were appointed and they were entrusted with the general supervision over the work of the Amildars, themselves being subordinate to Deputy Commissioners, the final authority in all matters vesting with the Chief Commissioner. In 1876, the immediate control over Muzrai institutions was, under the Chief Commissioner's orders, transferred to the Huzur Daftar Department, proposals for important changes and other correspondence not coming within the category of routine work alone being submitted through the Divisional Commissioner. The change took effect from the 1st January 1877, and, in

introducing it, new rules were framed with a view to improve the system of accounts and the efficiency of the department generally.

After the Rendition.

Administra-
tion and
staff.

After the Rendition, the management of the institutions reverted into the hands of the Deputy Commissioners of Districts, a small establishment being maintained in the Dewan's Office to deal with the papers bearing on Muzrai matters. A great need for reform in the management of the State Muzrai Institutions then continued to be pressed upon the attention of Government in several meetings of the Representative Assembly, and in December 1891, Government, on a consideration of the large interests involved and realizing the need for the reforms urged, appointed a special officer as Muzrai Superintendent to enquire into the subject on the spot and to carry out the needed reform in the case of each institution under the general or special orders of Government. To facilitate the disposal of the various questions by Government, the Muzrai Superintendent was also appointed *ex-officio* Secretary to Government. This arrangement continued till about the close of the official year 1921-22, when the post of the Muzrai Superintendent and Secretary to Government was abolished and the Revenue Commissioner in Mysore was appointed Muzrai Commissioner with sufficient powers of control and supervision over the District Officers.

Muzrai Institutions have been endowed with land ināms, the annual value of which is nearly 11 lakhs, in addition to ready money grants amounting to Rs. 3,24,600. (*Vide* statement I).

Classes of
Muzrai
institutions.

For purposes of management, the institutions are divided into three classes :—

- (1) *Major*.—Those having a total income from all sources exceeding Rs. 1,000 per annum and a few others of special importance to be specified from time to time.
- (2) *Minor*.—Those with an income ranging between Rs. 100 to Rs. 1,000.
- (3) *Village Institutions*.—Those with an annual income of less than Rs. 100.

Detailed instructions for the management of second and third class institutions have been issued.

The law relating to Muzrai Institutions in Mysore has been consolidated and codified into a Regulation known as the Muzrai Regulation, 1913, which was passed in October 1913 and came into force on 1st January 1914.

The Mysore
Muzrai
Regulation.

Provisions relating to religious and charitable institutions and to Mutts and similar institutions are contained in Chapters II and III respectively, while Chapter IV deals with the claims, appointment and removal, etc., of *pūjāris* and other hereditary temple servants.

Rules have been issued under Sections 13, 15 and 35 of the Muzrai Regulation, dealing with the maintenance of accounts in religious and charitable institutions, the conduct of business by *Dharmadarsis* and other cognate matters.

The standing orders relating to the Department have been compiled and published in the form of a Manual. Two supplements have also since been published.

The Muzrai
Manual.

A library of standing works relating to temple worship and religious practices has been formed in the Muzrai Commissioner's Office, and the Library is also being enlarged every year. Subject to certain specified conditions, a collection of books bearing on Oriental Philosophy, Religion, etc., has been lent to the Mythic Society,

Library.

Bangalore and they are kept in the society premises in a special bureau marked "Muzrai Department, Loan Section."

APPENDICES.

I. Statement showing balances, cash grants, etc., of institutions.

Balances on 30th June 1923			Cash grants, annual budget figures for 1923-24					
	Invested	Uninvested	Chatrams	Temples	Matts	Palace institutions	Muhammadian institutions	Allowances, grants-in-aid, etc.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Government of India 3½ per cent loan.	608,800	10,22,700†	60,218	125,364	60,118	55,182	12,405	11,048
Mysore Government 6½ per cent loan of 1940.	241,000

† Out of this, a sum of Rs. 509,000 has been ear-marked for investment in Mysore Government 6½ per cent loan of 1940.

II. Statement showing the number of different institutions in the State.

Major				Minor
Chatrams	Temples	Rest-houses	Muhammadian institutions	
36	87	24	7	1,316

III. List showing religious and charitable institutions outside the Mysore State receiving grants from the Mysore Government :—

No.	Name of institution and place where it is situated	Amount of allowance per year	Payment where made
CHATTRAMS.		Rs. a. p.	
1	His Highness the Maharaja's Chattram and certain charities established in the Sri Venkataramanasvami temple at Tirupati, Chittoor District.	12,036 9 6	Bangalore.
2	His Highness the Maharaja's Chatram at Benares.	2,883 3 3	Do
3	Barahazar Santarpane during Shasti festival at Subrahmanya, Uppina Angadi Taluk, South Canara District.	2,000 0 0	Hassan.
Total ...		16,919 12 9	
MATHAS AND BRINDAVANAMS.			
4	Hattiramji Matha at Tirupati ...	250 0 0	Bangalore.
5	Jangamvadi Matha at Benares ...	240 0 0	Mysore.
6	Sri Alagiya Manavala Ramanujaiyyar's Matha at Vishnu Kanchi, Conjeevaram.	58 1 0	Mulbagal.
7	Sirur Matha at Udipi ...	19 0 0	Belur.
8	Kanur Matha at Udipi ...	349 1 0	Tirthahalli.
9	Pejavar Matha at Udipi ...	261 13 0	Do
10	Puttige Matha at Udipi ...	408 10 0	Nagar.
11	Bhadarkere Matha at Hosahalli (Udipi Taluk).	174 9 0	Do
12	Palamara Matha at Udipi ...	349 1 0	Koppa.
13	Sri Satyavarahasvami's Brindavana at Santebidnur (Anantapur District).	290 13 0	Madhugiri.
14	Memorial at Calcutta ...	5,919 0 0	
Total ...		8,815 0 0	

III.—*concl'd.*

No.	Name of institution and place where it is situated	Amount of allowance per year	Payment where made
	TEMPLES.	Rs. a. p.	
15	Sri Venkataramanaswāmi temple at Tirupati (Chittoor District).	5 13 0	Bangalore.
16	Do do ...	13 2 0	Honnali.
17	Do do ...	3,130 0 0	Bangalore.
18	Sundry temples at Benares:— Sri Muddukrishna Dēvaru Rs. 60 ... Sri Subrahmanyaswāmi Rs. 60 ... Sri Depaji Swami Rs. 120 ...	240 0 0	Mysore.
19	Sri Arunachalēswaraswāmi at Tiruvannamalai.	436 6 0	Bangalore.
20	Sri Ardhanārīswaraswāmi at Tiruchangode.	290 15 0	Seringapatam.
21	Sri Jambukēśvaraswāmi at Jambukēśvara, Trichy.	131 12 0	Bangalore.
22	Sri Ranganāthaswāmi at Srīrangam, Trichy.	200 0 0	Do
23	Sri Yantrōddhāraka Mukhya Prāna Dēvaru at Humpi.	34 15 0	Molakalmuru.
24	Sri Ranganāthaswāmi at Gudupalli (Penukonda Taluk).	4 6 0	Bagepalli.
25	Sri Anjanēyaswāmi at Santebidnur (Anantapur District).	58 9 0	Madhugiri.
26	Sri Anantapadmanābhaswāmi at Udipi	236 6 0	Tirthahalli.
27	Sri Krishna Dēvaru at Udipi ...	6,807 0 0	Do
28	Do do ...	14 8 0	Do
29	Sri Vamanagiri Durga Dēvi on the hill of Kanabur village, Udipi Taluk.	4 6 0	Do
30	Sri Subrahmanyēśvara at Kalakunda, Uppina Angadi Taluk, South Canara.	581 13 0	Manjarabad.
31	Do for Agama service...	144 12 0	Do
32	Sri Ramachandra Dēvaru at Savanur, Dharwar District.	5 13 0	Honnali.
33	Sri Trivikrama Dēvaru at Swadi, Sirsi Taluk (Bombay).	4 6 0	Shikarapur.
34	Sri Banasankari at Bādami (Kaladgi District).	116 6 0	Davangere.
35	Hayagrivadēvaru in Parakāla Matha at Tirupati.	1,320 14 0	Bowringpet.
	Total ...	13,781 0 0	
	Grand total ...	39,016 5 9	

IV. Statement showing the particulars of Muzrai Institutions under the management of the Palace Authorities in the State :—

No.	Name of Institution	Amount		
		Rs.	a.	p.
1	His Highness the Maharaja's Chattram in Mysore ...	19,450	0	0
2	His Highness the Maharaja's Sanskrit College in Mysore ...	7,222	15	11
3	Sri Prasanna Krishnaswāmi Temple.	13,722	0	0
4	Varāhaswāmi Temple ...	4,329	0	0
5	Lakshmiramanaswāmy Temple ...	2,019	0	0
6	Trinēswaraswāmi Temple ...	2,011	0	0
7	Chāmundēswari Temple on the Chāmundi Hill ...	11,748	0	0
8	Chamanpatti Dēvēswara Temple ...	178	12	0
9	Bettada Padagudi ...	60	0	0
10	Panchagavi Matt ...	626	0	0
11	Japadakatte Matt ...	350	0	0
12	Sanjivaraj Urs' Temple, Mysore ...	120	0	0
13	Sri Sōmēswara Temple, Fort, Mysore.	8	12	0
14	Byravaswāmi Temple, Fort, Mysore.	8	12	0
15	Venkataramanaswāmi Temple, Fort, Mysore ...	287	14	0
16	Vināyaka Temple, Western Fort Gate, Mysore ...	58	3	0
17	Ānjanēya Temple, Southern Fort Gate, Mysore ...	104	12	0
18	Remuneration for dragging cars ...	100	0	0
Total ...		62,405	0	11
Deduct amount transferred to Education Budget on account of Mysore Sanskrit College ...		7,223	0	0
Total ...		55,182	0	11 a year

*V. Statement showing the institutions receiving annual grants
in-aid from State Funds during the year 1923-24 :—*

No.	Name of Institution	Amount		
		Rs.	a.	p.
1	Friend-in-need Society, Civil and Military Station, Bangalore ...	600	0	0
2	Girdlestone Home for incurables, Civil and Military Station, Bangalore ...	300	0	0
3	Srinivasa Mandiram Orphanage, Bangalore City ..	1,200	0	0
4	Arya Dharma Bôdhini Sabha ...	225	0	0
5	Ubhaya Vêdânta Pravartana Sabha, Mêlkôte ...	120	0	0
6	Anâthâlâya, Mysore ...	600	0	0
7	Abalâsrama, Basavangudi, Bangalore City ...	300	0	0
8	Ganesha Utsava in the Sri Châmarâjêndra Sanskrit College, Bangalore ...	25	0	0
9	Sanskrit College, Mêlkôte ...	3,240	0	0

SECTION 2—HORTICULTURE AND PUBLIC GARDENS.

HORTICULTURE.

Horticulture
and climatic
conditions.

The Mysore State enjoys a climate most favourable to horticulture. Its chief centre, the Bangalore District, which is also the centre of horticulture, may be said to be sub-tropical, as compared with the tropical climate of Madras and the distinctly temperate or alpine condition of the Nilgiris. In the State itself, these tropical and temperate conditions are represented in the planting districts and hilly ranges respectively. In Bangalore, with judicious treatment, most of the plants of these extreme climates can be grown. The rainfall in the State is extremely varied in its character and is suitable for both dry and wet cultivations. The rainy and summer

seasons are fairly good, but the winter is not long enough to allow of sufficient rest for fruit plants, such as peaches, plums, etc., so that artificial methods of wintering have to be adopted. On the whole, the climate of Bangalore is more suitable for the cultivation of fruits and vegetables, both local and European, than most other places in India.

In parts of the *malnād*, where the rainfall exceeds 90 inches, irrigation depends exclusively upon rains. Where it is less than 90, innumerable small tanks have been constructed to supply water whenever the rains hold off long. In the *maidān*, owing to scanty rainfall and the peculiar configuration of the ground, tanks are an absolute necessity and almost every likely site has been made use of for constructing a tank. Ninety per cent of the tanks are what are termed "minor," that is, tanks assessed at less than Rs. 300 per annum.

Irrigation and other water facilities.

Channels drawn from perennial streams and rivers are also being used for irrigation. Wells are dug for garden cultivation.

The areas irrigated under the different systems are as follows:—

Tanks	5,00,000 acres roughly.
Channels	1,00,000 do
Wells	62,000 do
Rain	2,00,000 do

As far as horticultural crops are concerned, well irrigation is the most important. Vegetables are chiefly cultivated in low land, where the water level is fairly high and water is lifted with the help of *picottas*. In places where the water level is low, *mhotas* are used. In a few large estates, started round Bangalore, pumps are used for lifting water. Oil engines are now being replaced by motors driven by electricity.

Soils suitable
for Horticul-
ture.

The soil in the Mysore State is generally productive. Of the various soils such as clayey, loamy, sandy and gravelly soils found in the State, loamy soils are preferable for horticultural crops. It is not always possible to find the ideal condition and very often the texture of soils has to be improved by artificial means. Drainage is one of the most important factors in the cultivation of fruit trees. In and around Bangalore, fruit plants are cultivated in well-drained, red, loamy soils and vegetables in the deep soils of low areas.

The tools
employed.

In the matter of implements, the cultivators of fruits and vegetables are not so backward as the cultivators of field crops. They use both the local and European tools. The chief difference between the two sets of tools is that, in the case of local tools, the man has to work towards him with a pulling action whereas in the case of imported implements he has to work away from him with pushing action. The gardeners here are naturally more accustomed to the former way of working and almost all European implements which could be worked similarly are used by them. The chief implements used in gardening are the following :—

- | | |
|--|---------------------|
| (1) <i>Guddali</i> .—One sided pickaxe used for deep digging. | (5) Pick axe. |
| (2) <i>Mamtee</i> .—A spade used for digging soil and for surface digging in soft soils. | (6) Rake. |
| (3) <i>Kale Kothu</i> .—Minia-
ture <i>guddali</i> for removing
weeds and stirring soil. | (7) Trowel. |
| (4) <i>Hārekōlu</i> .—Crowbar. | (8) Handfork. |
| | (9) Sickle. |
| | (10) Pruning Knife. |
| | (11) Hedge shears. |
| | (12) Pruning saw. |
| | (13) Watering can. |

The digging fork, the spade and the shovel are used only in Government and a few big private gardens.

The cultivation of all crops in horticulture is intensive. As they are not grown on such large scale as field crops, and as they are more paying, the growers do not hesitate to improve the soil by adding different kinds of soil constituents and manures according to the necessity and even to renew the whole soil as in the case of flower plants. The plough is generally replaced by the spade and the soil is dug usually to $1\frac{1}{2}$ to 2 feet in depth. On large areas, ploughing is done to prepare the land. The local plough is the commonest, but improved ploughs are gradually taking its place. In the case of a few large estates, tractors are used for ploughing with mould board or Disc ploughs. The improved plough has a decided advantage over the local one in as much as it inverts the soil.

Preparation
of the land.

Heavy manuring is necessary for the cultivation of vegetables, fruits and flowers. The common manures are the following :—Cattle manure, horse manure, sheep manure, nightsoil, town rubbish, leaf-mould, wood-ashes, oil cakes, bonemeal, lime, nitrate of soda, sulphate of ammonia, sulphate of potash, *kainit* superphosphate and nitrate of potash are used in large estates and Government gardens and farms where scientific and experimental cultivation is done. Liquid and green manures are also used in some cases.

The manures
used.

The work of the Horticultural Department may be classified into three main divisions, *viz.*, scientific, economic and ornamental. The sciences which are applied are chiefly Botany, Entomology, Mycology and Chemistry. Economic work includes the cultivation of fruits, vegetables and other useful plants yielding fuel, timber, shade, fibre, medicine, etc. Ornamental horticulture consists of flower and landscape gardening. Horticultural education and popularising horticulture also form

Principal
sections of
Horticulture
and work
connected
with it.

part of the work. Lastly, the development of Hill Stations and Town Planning are included in the sphere of the department. Practically all the work falling under the head of scientific research is done at the Government Botanical Garden, Lal-Bagh, Bangalore, which is the centre of all horticultural activity in the State. The different sections of work done here are described below.

(a) Botanical
work.

The systematic maintenance of a representative section, the constant importation of new plants and the collection of different kinds of plants form the chief effort in Botanical work. Most of these plants are planted in groups according to their genera. Labels containing the scientific and common names of the plant, the natural order to which it belongs and its habitation are provided. This arrangement is much appreciated by botanists and college students. An Herbarium containing a large and valuable collection of specimens, representing chiefly the Flora of the Mysore State, is also maintained. The dried specimens in the Herbarium together with the collection of live plants in the garden close at hand afford unique facilities for the study of Botany in the State. There is also a most valuable collection of paintings of botanical subjects drawn by the Artist of this department.

(b) Economic
Section.

In the Economic Section of Botany, hybridising and plant breeding work is done. New plants of commercial importance are introduced, their cultivation is tried and their uses are investigated. Those plants which are found suitable are propagated in the Nursery and distributed to the districts.

The Bureau of Economic Botany is maintained for the study of Economic plants and their products. It has two primary objects in view, *viz.*—

(1) To furnish by means of extracts and references from the chief technical publications, systematically arranged in ledger cabinets, ready and up-to-date information on the cultivation of Economic plants and the manufacture and commerce of the products derived from them ; and

(2) To exhibit for study by the public, the seeds and other useful parts of economic plants, as samples of economic or commercial vegetable products, raw and in various stages of preparation or manufacture.

The economic garden in the Lal-Bagh affords further facilities for the study of living specimens of economic plants.

(c) Bureau of
Economic
Botany.

The study of insect and fungus pests forms another section of work. These pests on vegetable and flower and fruit plants are studied and preventive and remedial measures are found out. Among insect pests, scales, green and brown and mealy bugs, aphis, and stem borers ; and among fungus diseases, mildew, rust, and sooty mould are general. The staff not only treats the diseases on plants in the Government Gardens but also goes round private gardens, specially neighbouring orchards, and does spraying work, for it is chiefly in the latter that fruit plants are propagated and sold and, if they are not treated, the pests would get largely distributed in different localities.

(d) The study
of insect and
fungus pests.

With the object of controlling these diseases, all incoming and outgoing plants are subjected to thorough examination and are then fumigated in the *Fumigatorium*, which is a special construction prepared for the use of hydro-cyanic gas. All plants are then sent out to their respective destinations under a guarantee of being free from insect or other pests.

The
fumiga-
torium.

Attached to the office there is a seed-store and sale-room in which seeds, both acclimatised and imported,

Seed-store and saleroom. are sold to the public as also plants propagated and grown in the Lal-Bagh Nurseries.

Seed-testing house. The seeds are tested in the seed-testing house with a view to determining their germinating power, purity and vitality. Seeds from private nurserymen are also tested free for them.

Nurseries. The nurseries consist of the indoor or tropical sections, the outdoor nursery and potting sheds, seed-house, bulb-stores, and the like. The Seed House has been fitted for placing the newly sown seeds under the most suitable condition for germination and to protect them against the extremes of temperature. Similarly, for the proper treatment of the seedlings, a glass-roofed verandah with suitable staging has been provided. The Potting shed is fitted with a full range of stone benching for transplanting, potting and establishing young plants prior to putting them to their quarters in the beds. The propagating frames are fitted with glass shutters, moveable shading and bottom heat pits. These frames are intended chiefly for propagating tender plants by cuttings and germinating seeds requiring a closed temperature. The Indoor Nursery Beds are protected by an iron-framed roofing, supported on stone pillars, and covered by creepers, which allow for adjusting the shade by pruning. These beds afford suitable accommodation to the newly imported young stock, which have to be acclimatised. In the Outdoor Nursery, hardy plants are stocked in large numbers for sale to the public. It is divided into four sections consisting of the following :—

- (a) Soft wooded plants.
- (b) Fruit trees.
- (c) Ornamental trees and shrubs.
- (d) Economic and Commercial plants.

This Nursery is enclosed and partitioned with trellis, over which different kinds of creepers are trained for propagation, which at the same time form wind-belts. Proper shade is provided by planting suitable trees.

The Library, which is situated in the Office building, adjoining the Bureau of Economic Botany, contains a large number of books on Floriculture, Pomology, Olericulture, Landscape and Economic Gardening, Town-planning and allied subjects. It is open not only to the Departmental staff but also to the public. Next to the library, there is a small Laboratory for analysis of soils, economic products, fruit preserving, etc.

The Library
and
Laboratory.

The Horticultural Class is meant for training sons of landlords who wish to grow fruits, vegetables, etc., and also to train men who desire to take up service under the Government or private agencies, such as Overseers and Supervisors of gardens. The students get a monthly scholarship of Rs. 10 from Government. Besides horticulture, practical and theoretical, they are taught the allied subjects of botany, entomology, chemistry, etc.

The
Horticultural
Class.

The Mali Class students are taught practical gardening in the Nurseries and gardens and in the Sunkal Tank Experimental Farm. This institution is chiefly intended to meet the great demand that exists for gardeners in private houses.

The Mali
Class.

Two Horticultural Shows are held every year in the Lal-Bagh, the Winter Show in February and the Summer one in August. They serve largely to educate the people, and students particularly, in Flower and Vegetable cultivation, besides providing a great pleasure to those who love flower culture.

Horticultural
Shows.

VEGETABLE CULTURE.

Conditions
favouring
Vegetable
Culture.

The Mysore State has the necessary soil, climate and elevation to grow all the European and Indian Vegetables to perfection almost throughout the year. The cultivation of European vegetables on a commercial scale is confined to Bangalore and its surrounding Taluks to meet the demands of military and European residents. The cultivation of European vegetables is spreading throughout the State as a result of the propagandist work of the Horticultural Inspectors. The local raiyat has a better knowledge of the cultivation of vegetables than the raiyats of other parts of India. There is a considerable export trade in vegetables to Bombay, Madras and other district head-quarter towns. The raiyat selects his land at a spot where there is easy marketing, transport facilities are available, and a good supply of water is assured throughout the year. In selecting land, he avoids water and alkaline soils containing harmful salts. Once a year, during the summer, the land is deeply trenched to a foot depth with a crow-bar to eradicate *Hariali* and nut grasses. The chief manures used locally are :—Night-soil, sewage, farm yard manure and municipal refuse. The chief implements used are crow-bar, *guddali*, small and big, *mammattes* and sickles, *picotah* for lifting of water for small plots and single *mhote* for larger pieces of land. Oil engines and electrical motor pumps are used by a few enterprising cultivators. The raiyat has still to be educated in the scientific methods employed in vegetable culture, as practised in Western countries, such as the use of labour saving appliances, chemical fertilisers, green manures, liquid manures, seed selection, rotation of crops, inter-cultivation ; also such operations as earthing up, blanching, etc., at the proper time, the proper method of combating insect and fungus pests. He has yet to be trained to

appreciate better varieties of vegetables than what he grows. There are countless excellent vegetables, such as Broad Beans, Artichoke, English Marrow-fat peas, Runner Beans, Butter wax pod, French Beans, Asparagus, Sugar corn, etc., which can be successfully grown here ; but these are unknown to the local raiyat. The Sunkal Tank Farm has done a great deal of useful work in trial, propagation and distribution of better varieties of vegetables. The use of cold storage, scientific methods of packing for export, preservation of vegetables for use during times of scarcity by sterilising, bottling, sun-drying etc., are altogether unknown in the State.

The following Indian Vegetables are grown throughout the State :—

List of Indian
Vegetables
grown in the
State.

1. Mane avara (*Dolichos Lablab*).
2. Bilimane avara (*Dolichos lablab var*).
3. Ghatt avara (*Dolichos minimus*).
4. Ground-nut (*Arachis hypogea*).
5. Cowpea (*Vigna-catiung*).
6. Garden Red Gram (*Cajanus indicus*).
7. Gorikai (*Trigonella tetrapetala*).
8. Mullu badane (*Solanum esculentum var*).
9. Brinjal (*Solanum esculentum*).
10. Cucumber (*Cucumis sativus*).
11. Budame balli (*Cucumis species*).
12. Onion (*Allium cepa*).
13. Arum (*Arum esculentum*).
14. Churna gedda (*Arum campanulates*).
15. Kesava (*Arum colacasia*).
16. Cassava (*Manihot ultissima*).
17. Sweet Potato (*Ipomea batatas*).
18. Bendakai (*Hibiscus esculentus*).
19. Bozella (*Hibiscus subdariffa*).
20. Pundarika (*Hibiscus Cannabinos*).
21. Radish (*Raphinus sativus*).
22. Drumstick (*Moringa pterygosperma*).
23. Magaliberu (*Hemidesmis indica var*).

24. Musk melon (*Cucurbita morchara*).
25. Sweet pumpkin (*Cucurbita alba*).
26. Watermelon (*Citrullus vulgaris*).
27. Tondekai (*Bryonia umbellata*).
28. Ash gourd (*Benincasa cerifera*).
29. Luffa (*Luffa acutangala*).
30. Thuppatharakai (*Luffa aegyptiaca*).
31. Bitter gourd (*Momordica charantia*).
32. Gid Hagalu (*Momordica dioica*).
33. Bottle gourd (*Lagenaria vulgaris*).

SPICES.

1. Ginger (*Zingiber officinale*).
2. Pepper (*Piper nigrum*).
3. Turmeric (*Curcuma longa*).
4. Chillies (*Capsicum annum*).
5. Garlic (*Allium sativum*).

INDIAN GREENS.

1. Dantu soppu (*Amaranthus gangeticus*).
2. Chilkarive soppu (*Amaranthus mangostanus*).
3. Harive soppu (*Amarantus inamoenus*).
4. Serrekeeray (*Amarantus campestris*).
5. Soppu (*Amarantus olerareus*).
6. Honoganesoppu (*Alternanthera sesilis*).
7. Sakotti soppu (*Chenopodium viride*).
8. Kottumbari soppu (*Coriandrum sativum*).
9. Mentiyada soppu (*Trigonella foenum graecum*).
10. Agase soppu (*Sesbania grandiflora*).
11. Dodda gora (*Portulaca oleracea*).
12. Hulibacheli (*Portulaca quadrifida*).
13. Doddabasali or Indian spinach (*Basella rubra*).
14. Mangaruvalli balli (*Vitis quarnrangularis*).
15. Buddakakaratige (*Cardiospermum Halicacabum*).
16. Sabbasige soppu (*Peucedanum graveolens*).
17. Sukke soppu (*Rumex Vesicarius*).
18. Kachi gida (*Solanum nigrum*).
19. Pullampurasi soppu (*Oxalis corniculata*).
20. Areekeeray (*Bytteneria hervacea*).
21. Pisonia alba (*Lettuce tree*).

Pith flowers and immature fruits of plantains and immature fruit of Jack are also used as vegetable.

The following is a list of some new varieties of vegetables grown at the Sunkal Tank Experimental Farm, Bangalore. and distributed largely among raiyats :—

New varieties
of vegetables
distributed
among
raiya's.

(1) Ground-nut (*Arachis hypogea*).

(a) Virginia (b) Mauritius (c) Spanish peanut (d) Small Japan and (e) Big Japan.

These varieties are richer in oil content and easy to harvest as the seed-pods grow nearer to the surface of the ground.

(2) Brinjal (*Solanum esculentum*). These are imported from America and Germany; contain very little seed; each fruit weighs as much as 3 to 4 lbs.

- (a) Black Beauty ... Colour of the fruit purplish black and shape large and round.
- (b) New York ... Improved spineless, large, purple oval fruit.
- (c) Round white ... Medium sized fruit.
- (d) Long white ... Medium sized fruit.
- (e) Long green ... Good flavour, hardy and higher yielder.
Ernegeri.
- (f) Negro prince ... Small round black fruits borne in clusters.

(3) Ginger (*Zingiber officinale*).

"Mango scented ginger," a variety of ginger imported from Calcutta has the flavour of green mango and free from pungency.

(4) Cassava (*Manihot ultissima*).—Five sweet varieties imported from Travancore consisting of black skinned and white skinned varieties useful for starch making as well as food.

(5) Capsicum Chilli (*Capsicum anum*).—These varieties were imported from America and Europe.

- (a) Chinese Giant ... This is the largest variety grown under cultivation. Thick flesh, very mild flavour, each fruit weighs about 1 lb.
- (b) Tobosco ... Fruits small but very hot.
- (c) Ruby king ... Large sized long fruit. Flavour sweet and mild and may be eaten raw like an apple or tomato.
- (d) New Sweetmeat ... Fruit rich crimson scarlet, conical shape, flesh very thick and sweet.
Glory.
- (e) Cherry red ... A small round variety. Flavour is very hot.
- (f) Elephant's Trunk ... Large long fruits, very mild flavour.

(6) Onion (Bellary).—This is a large white variety of mild sweet flavour.

(7) Bendikai (*Hibiscus esculentus*).

“White velvet”... Long smooth, round and velvety pods, fleshy and free from fibre.

“Long Green”... Pods free from thorns, green and slender.

European
Vegetables
grown at
Bangalore.

The following is a list of European vegetables grown in Bangalore :—

1. Potatoes (*Solanum tuberosum*).
2. Beet root (*Beta vulgaris*).
3. Carrot (*Daucus carota*).
4. Turnip (*Brassica rapa*).
5. Table radish (*Raphanus sativus*).
6. Tomatoes (*Lycopersicum esculentum*).
7. Chow Chow (*Sochium edula*).
8. Cabbage (*Brassica oleracea Capitata*).
9. Cauliflower (*Brassica oleracea Botrytis Cauliflora*).
10. Knol Khol (*Brassica oleracea caulo-rapha*).
11. Vegetable marrow (*Cucurbita pepo*).
12. Dwarf French or Kidney Beans (*Phaseolus vulgaris*).
13. Lima Bean (*Phaseolus lunatus*).
14. Artichoke Jerusalem (*Helianthus tuberosus*).
15. Garden Pea (*Pisum sativum*).
16. Maize (*Zea Mays*).
17. Mint (*Mentha viridis*).
18. Celery (*Apium graveolens*).
19. Lettuce (*Lactuca sativa*).

List of
important
European
varieties
distributed
among
raiyaats.

The following is a list of some important new European varieties grown at the Sunkal Tank Experimental Farm, Bangalore, and distributed widely among the raiyaats :—

1. Potatoes (*Solanum tuberosum*).

- (a) Brownell's Beauty... They were imported from Australia. Large,
 (b) Up-to-date ... oval, flesh white and mealy, flavour excellent.
 (c) Great Scot ... High yielder and comes to maturity much earlier than local varieties.
 (d) Italian Beauty ... The crop matures in four months. Extremely hardy and high yielding variety. Shape of the tubers rather irregular and round. Eyes sunken. Flesh waxy and yellow.

2. Tomatoes (Imported from Europe and America).

- (a) Ponderosa ... A good marketable purplish pink, fruit very solid: attains greatest size each fruit weighing as much as 1 lb. or more.
- (b) June Pink ... Pink coloured fruits, shape flattened and slightly corrugated, flavour good.
- (c) Golden Queen ... Large yellow fruit, shape smooth and flattened. Flavour excellent better than all red varieties.
- (d) Yellow Plum ... Shape of the fruit is like a plum. Colour is bright lemon yellow. Fleshy and excellent flavour.
- (e) King Humbert Scarlet. Smooth glassy fruits. Shape like plum, keeps well.
- (f) Yellow Pear ... Yellow coloured fruits of good flavour. Shape is like a pear.
- (g) Red Pear Shaped ... Fruits bright red of true pear shape.
- (h) Golden Nugget ... Fruits borne in clusters containing as much as 60 fruits in a bunch. Shape globular and smooth. Colour bright golden. Flavour very superior.
- (i) Peachbow ... Shape like peach. Pink coloured fruits. Flavour excellent.
- (j) Marvel of the Market. Large round variety and a good yielder.

3. Dwarf French or Kidney Beans "Canadian Wonder."

Longer pods than the local varieties. Prolific yielder. Seeds pink, in colour. Imported from Europe.

4. Garden Peas (*Pisum sativum*).

(a) "Pilot (b) Tremendous" imported from Europe. Ready for table in 50 days. Green pods and seeds three times larger than the local variety. Flower excellent. Dry seeds have wrinkled surface and are greenish white in colour.

5. Maize (*Zea Mays*).—Imported from America.

- (a) "Moro" ... White seeds, large cobs. Ready for harvest in 33 months. Extremely hardy variety and does not deteriorate.
- (b) "Golden Beauty" ... Very large yellow seeded cobs ready for harvest in 3 months.

Both the varieties yield three times more than the local variety and also can be grown as a fodder crop throughout the year.

6. Cabbage Lettuce (*Lectuca sativa*).

- (a) "May King" ... Imported from Europe. Resembles a small cabbage and is of an excellent quality.

7. Soy Bean (*Glycine hispida*).—There are several varieties under trial, either bushy or creeping in habit. The colour of the seed is either black, creamy white or yellow. Plants are hardy, can be grown as dry crop in the rains or as an irrigated crop.

(a) "Large round
Japan."

Plant bushy. Seeds are as big as peas, creamy white in colour. Flavour excellent.

8. Edible podded or Sugar peas (*Pisum sativum*).—The pods of this variety are gathered broken and cooked like stringless beans when the peas start to develop in the pod or have reached about half their full size. Flavour is extremely sweet. Green succulent pods are ready for harvest in 45 days from the date of sowing.

9. Sugar corn (*Zea Mays*).—Imported from America.

(a) "Howling Mob"

(b) "Golden Bantam"

This is an extremely sweet variety and therefore much used as vegetable before cobs mature. Plants are like ordinary field corn but dwarf and produce large number to tillerings full of sweet cobs. The green cobs are ready for table within 50 or 55 days from the date of sowing. This is also valuable as a short duration fodder crop.

List of new
Sunkal
vegetables
distributed
among
raiyaats.

The following is a list of imported vegetables grown only at the Sunkal Tank Experimental Farm and distributed among the raiyaats:—

(1) Asparagus (*Asparagus officinalis*) Imported from Europe. A hardy perennial grown for its immature shoots.

(a) "Sutton's perfection" is a good variety.

(2) Dwarf French butter wax beans (*Phaseolus vulgaris*).

(a) Golden butter wax ... Imported from Europe, fleshy yellow pods, entirely free from fibre, flavour excellent.

(3) Runner Beans (*Phaseolus multiflorus*).—Imported from America to be grown on trellis. Yield of the runner beans three times more than Dwarf French beans.

(a) "Kentucky wonder" Brown seeded brown fleshy pods measuring 7 to 8 inches long, stringless, flavour excellent.

(b) "Golden Cluster" ... White seeded long flat pods measuring 7 to 8 inches, colour rich golden yellow, flavour excellent.

(4) Broad Bean (*Faba vulgaris*).

- (a) "Benary's white" ... Is a good variety imported from Germany ready for harvest within three months.

(5) Sword Bean (*Canavalia gladiata*).—A superior white seeded bushy variety imported from Ceylon and can be grown without trellis. The local variety is a creeping one.

(6) Bush Lima (*Phaseolus lunatus*).—Henderson's Bush Lima is of American origin and can be grown like Dwarf French beans without trellis but the local variety is a small seeded creeping one.

The following is a list of new vegetables grown only in the Sunkal Tank Experimental Farm, Bangalore:—

List of new vegetables grown at Sunkal Farm.

- (1) Arrow root (*Marantha arundiniacea*).
- (2) Asparagus (*Asparagus officinalis*).
- (3) Artichoke Globa (*Cynara scolymus*).
- (4) Artichoke jerusalem (*Helianthus tuberosus*).
- (5) Parsnip (*Pastinaca sativa*).
- (6) Leeks (*Allium porrum*).
- (7) Dwarf French butter wax bean (*Phaseolus vulgaris*).
- (8) Runner Beans (*Phaseolous multiflorus*).
- (9) Broad Beans (*Faba vulgaris*).
- (10) Sword Beans (*Canavalia gladiata* or *ensiformis*).
- (11) Bush Lima Bean (*Phaseolus lunatus*).
- (12) Soy Bean (*Glacine hispida*).
- (13) Goa Bean (*Psophocarpus tetragonolobus*).
- (14) Bombara Ground Bean (*Kerstigiella jeocarpa*).
- (15) Edible podded or Sugar Peas (*Pisum sativum*).
- (16) Sugar Loaf Cabbage (*Brassica eleracea capitata*).
- (17) Red pickling cabbage (*Brassica oleracea capitata*).
- (18) Savoy Cabbage (*Brassica oleracea Bullata gummi-fera*).
- (19) Brussels Sprouts (*Brassica oleracea* var. *Bullata gummi-fera*).
- (20) Sugar corn (*Zea Mazs*).
- (21) Mushroom (*Agaricus campestris*).
- (22) Palwal (*Trichosanthes dioica*).
- (23) Dioscorea aculeta var. Binato.
- (24) Dioscorea elata var. Dampol.

Herbs grown
at Sunkal
Farm.

- (25) *Dioscorea elata* var. Kinampay.
- (26) *Dioscorea elata* var. Basol.
- (27) *Dioscorea elata* var. Lebe.
- (28) *Dioscorea macrta* var. Batomgas.
- (29) *Dioscorea aculeata* var. Binang.
- (30) *Dioscorea aculeata* var. Limalima.
- (31) *Dioscorea aculeata* var. Licamas.
- (32) Endive (*Cichorium endiva*).
- (33) Parsley (*Petroselinum sativum*).
- (34) Spinach (*Spinacea oleracea*).
- (35) Sage (*Salvia officinalis*).
- (36) Hyssop (*Hyssopus officinalis*).
- (37) Thyme (*Thymus bulgaris*).
- (38) Peppermint (*Mentha piperita*).
- (39) Lavender (*Levendula spioa*).
- (40) Rosemary (*Rosemarinus officinalis*).
- (41) Water cress (*Nastutium officinalis*).
- (42) Borage (*Barago officinalis*).
- (43) Fennel (*Foeniculum vulgare*).
- (44) Indian Pennywort (*Hydrocotyle asiatica*).
- (45) Dill (*Peucedanum graveolens*).
- (46) Caraway (*Carum carui*).
- (47) Cumin (*Cumminum cyniumum*).
- (48) Fenugreek (*Trigenella fenugraecum*).
- (49) Basil (*Ocimum minimum Ocimum Basilicum*).
- (50) Rue (*Ruta graveolens*).
- (51) Sorrel (*Rumex acetosa*).

PUBLIC GARDENS AND PARKS.

The
Department
and its work.

The Department is under the control of an officer designated as "The Superintendent, Government Gardens." The more important functions of the Department are :—

1. Administration and upkeep of the various Government Gardens in the charge of the Department.
2. Industrial and commercial planting, distribution of economic plants and seeds and affording technical assistance and imparting horticultural education.
3. Working of the Sunkal Tank Experimental Farm.

4. Supervision of the Nandi Hill Station.
5. Development of Hill Stations.

The Superintendent, Government Gardens, is also in charge of the Museum Department. He is, besides, since 1922 "Consulting Architect to Government," a capacity in which he gives his expert opinion and advice on designs of important buildings and architectural work generally as also on important town-planning operations and other improvements undertaken by the Mysore and Bangalore City Municipalities and other local bodies.

The Gardens in Mysore have been, since 1923, placed in charge of a whole time Curator.

The Government Gardens, otherwise known as the Lal-Bagh, has maintained its reputation as a local centre of interest and recreation and as an institution of scientific and technical utility. The occasions on which the Lal-Bagh has been made use of for entertainments such as congratulatory addresses, farewell parties, moonlight concerts, fancy bazaars, golf and cycle meets are very numerous and are again a proof of the increasing popularity of the institution. Two horticultural shows are being held every year in summer and winter respectively and prizes are awarded for the best exhibits.

The
Government
Gardens,
Bangalore.

An important event in the annals of the Lal-Bagh has been the erection of the Equestrian Statue of His Highness Sri Chamarajendra Wadiyar Bahadur, the late Maharaja of Mysore, which was done during the year 1908-09. The statue was transferred from the Curzon Park at Mysore, another one having been secured for that place.

There is a Seed Depôt and Sale Room and an Implement Depôt attached to the Depôt and situated in the Lal-Bagh. The Seed Depôt collects all indigenous botanical seeds for purposes of exchange with other institutions, procuring all the necessary imported seeds required

for the sale room and garden use. A library containing Books and Journals on Botanical and Horticultural subjects and a Bureau of Economic Botany containing information and references on most of the commercial plants have been maintained for the use of the public. Horticultural education is also imparted to students and teachers. Botany students from high schools and colleges pay frequent visits to look up botanical drawings and specimens. Demonstrations about preparation of presentation and preservation of plants and other natural history objects and garden operations are also organised. A demonstration of the kind was arranged for European girl scouts during the year 1922-23.

The need for a restaurant in the Lal-Bagh was being felt by the visitors for a long time, the more so with the increase in the extent of the garden. The subject of providing one was taken up seriously about September 1914 and, on 20th December 1915, two separate restaurants, one for Europeans and another for Indian Refreshments, were started in the block of buildings popularly known as "Darwinia" in the centre of the Terrace Garden, after effecting some small alterations to it to suit the purpose. No liquor is allowed to be sold in the Restaurants. The institution is increasing in popularity and visitors feel that a long felt want has been met.

Among the Gardens maintained by the Department in Bangalore are:—The Cubbon and Kumara Parks, the gardens attached to the Victoria and Minto Ophthalmic Hospitals, and the garden included in "Ballabrooie," for sometime the official residence of the Dewan of the State.

Gardens in
Mysore.

As a large number of gardens are situated in Mysore and the responsibility of maintaining them in an efficient condition has increased, a qualified Officer designated as Curator, was, in 1923, appointed to be in charge of it. The more important gardens included in this Sub-Division

are:—the Curzon Park, the Gordon Park, and the Government House Garden. The following smaller gardens are also attached to it :—

(1) "Lake View," the official residence of the Dewan of the State.

(2) Private Secretary's Quarters.

(3) Durbar Surgeon's Do

(4) Indian Guests' Do

(5) "Padmalaya."

(6) "Seshadri House."

(7) Representatives' Home.

(8) University Gardens.

Under Departmental Gardens, the following form part of it :—

(1) Sir Kantaraj Urs' House.

(2) Peoples' Park.

(3) Exhibition Grounds.

(4) Sewage Farm.

On account of its historic interest, the island of Seringapatam, of which the Daria Dowlat Bagh is one of the chief attractions, continues to attract travellers from foreign countries as also local sight-seers and visitors. This garden is being invariably honoured by visits by all distinguished visitors to Mysore and the Royal family of Mysore continue to occasionally grace the garden with their visits.

Daria Dowlat
Bagh,
Seringa-
patam.

As the designation indicates, the Sunkal Tank Experimental Farm, Bangalore, is run on experimental lines. It deals with the introduction, cultivation, propagation and distribution of exotics, representing the several kinds of edible fruits, vegetables and economics of either commercial importance or value. The introduction of seeds and plants by exchange with other botanical institutions

Sunkal Tank
Experimental
Farm.

throughout the world receives continuous attention at the Farm.

Hill Stations. The supervision of the Hill Stations of the State was assigned to the Gardens Department by an order of Government dated 29th December 1914, a grant of Rs. 12,000 to start work only on the Nandi Hill being made by Government at the same time. The Department took actual charge of the Nandi Hill Station from the Public Works Department on 1st April 1915, and undertook the necessary repairs to the bungalows and the provision of equipment and other facilities required by the visitors. The Railway line to this station was completed during the year 1915-16, and the first train to the station was run on 1st August 1915. The importance of this Railway connection with Bangalore cannot be overestimated. A telephone line from the Nandi Railway Station to the top of the Hills has also been opened for the convenience of visitors. The amenities to the visitors include the following :—

(1) Water, got analysed periodically by the Bacteriologist, pumped up to a cement cistern, drawn by taps and supplied to all bungalows in vessels carried by bullocks.

(2) Ordinary articles of oilmanstores stocked and sold almost at Bangalore prices for vegetarians and non-vegetarians.

(3) Free supply of crockery, cutlery, copper and brass vessels for vegetarian and non-vegetarian visitors.

(4) A high class Indian Hotel.

(5) The lending of the services of *malies*, if required.

(6) The services of an experienced *Kotwal* for getting milk, vegetables and other perishables daily, if required, by customers.

(7) High class aerated water prepared fresh on the Hills at prices cheaper than at Bangalore.

(8) Two Tennis Courts with accessories complete.

(9) Special Police arrangements during the season.

There are clear indications that the Hill Station is growing in popularity and that the public is availing itself of the advantages offered by the Government. Until 1923, there was a Curator in charge of this Station. The post was, however, abolished in that year. The number of visitors to the Nandi Hill Station and the receipts from them during the last eight years is shown below :—

Year			Number of Visitors	Receipts
1915-16	350	1,125
1916-17	608	3,332
1917-18	681	2,381
1918-19	878	3,923
1919-20	826	3,084
1920-21	851	3,898
1921-22	765	2,882
1922-23	589	2,819

Since 1921-22, there has been a noticeable fall in the number of visitors to this Station though it has recently shown a tendency again to go up.

SECTION 3—THE GOVERNMENT MUSEUM.

The establishment of a Museum in Bangalore for the exhibition of natural and artificial products of Mysore was at first considered in the year 1864 and the following circular letter was addressed to the Superintendents of Divisions by the Chief Commissioner of Mysore :—

Origin and
Development.

“The establishment of a Museum for the exhibition of natural and artificial products of Mysore being in contemplation, I have the honour, by desire of the Commissioner, to request that you will, both personally and by the aid of the Deputy Superintendents, endeavour to contribute such articles of interest as may be procurable within your Division. The collection of such specimens must necessarily be the work of time, and as it is to be hoped that private individuals will lend assistance in presenting articles of various descriptions, it does not appear

to the Commissioner to be necessary that any great expense should be incurred, though at the same time his sanction will be given for the expenditure of moderate sums when necessary. It is probable that ample space will be available for exhibiting the collection on the construction of the new Public Offices; but no difficulty, it is expected, will be experienced in procuring sufficient accommodation even at the present time. The Commissioner desires me to direct your attention to the many works of antiquity and ancient art, such as Sculptures, Coins, Inscriptions, etc., which are to be found in many parts of the Province, and which possess a high interest in a Historical, Geographical and Social point of view; inscriptions, especially, being most numerous in the Nagar Division. A collection of such coins as are procurable at Bangalore has already been made, and in the case of Sculptures and Inscriptions where the original cannot be removed, copies may be made. In order to avoid an unnecessary accumulation of the same article from different sources, where there is no real distinction in quality, form, texture, or other peculiar feature, I am directed to request that you will be good enough in the first place to submit a report exhibiting the special products, natural and artificial, of your Division, so that the extra cost of transit, etc., from distant places of articles procurable at or near Bangalore may be averted."

In response to this letter, specimens from all parts of the State began to pour in and the collections were housed temporarily, in 1865, in a portion of the old Cantonment Jail. From time to time, fresh instalments were received until the collections quite outgrew the space which could be found for them in the temporary building. They were then removed to another building in the Museum road. Even this building was found to be quite inadequate and the construction of the present building, an exceptionally handsome one of its size, was put in hand in the year 1877 as a famine work. The specimens were then transferred to the new building in the year 1878.

From the start, the Museum was freely thrown open to the public throughout the week with the exception of

Sundays and other holidays. Since April 1916, however, to meet the convenience of the public, the Museum is kept open on Sundays and closed on Wednesdays. A Reading Room and Library, first opened in 1887, is attached to it and is accessible to the reading public. The Library consisted of some 2,000 volumes.

Dr. Edward Green Balfour, well known as the author of an Encyclopædia of India, who was largely instrumental in establishing, in 1850, a Government Central Museum at Madras and was for nine years its Superintendent, was the first officer to be placed in charge of the Museum. He practically commenced this Museum in 1866. He was succeeded by Dr. Oswald, who was followed by Mr. Mackenzie. The latter was succeeded by Mr. Cameron who was also Superintendent of Government Gardens at Bangalore. The arrangement, under which the officer in charge of Government Gardens is also in charge of the Museum, still continues.

The Museum is quite a popular institution as may be inferred from the increasing number of people visiting it from year to year. The number of visitors which stood at 348,073, in 1880-81, increased to 468,197 in the year 1923-24. Very large crowds visit on the Karaga and other festival days.

The collections have been augmented, improved and arranged under different groups, as detailed below, labels have been provided in all cases and descriptive and classified lists have been compiled. A separate place has been appropriated for articles belonging to one and the same section. The entrance hall is assigned to exhibits of archæological interest. The main hall is divided into three portions, the right wing being utilized for geological specimens, the left wing for economic products and the main hall for 'Ethnology and Art. The whole of the upper storey has a valuable collection of Natural Collections.

History specimens arranged according to their different groups :—

(i) Geology.

(ii) Botany.—There are a few models and some carpological exhibits here which are worthy of note.

(iii) Zoology.—There is a fair collection of Fauna.

(a) Mammals.—In this section are to be found a fine head of the Indian bison (*Bos gaurus*); and a collection of 23 skins of rodents, presented by the Bombay Natural History Society, taken from among the specimens collected by them during a Mammalian survey conducted by them in Mysore (1913), to which Government contributed a sum of Rs. 2,000.

(b) Birds.—The collection is fair but requires to be improved.

(c) Fishes.—Almost all the specimens, save a few, are marine.

(d) Shells and Corals.—This group is composed entirely of foreign specimens.

(e) Reptiles and insects.—The collection is not fully representative.

(iv) Archæology and Epigraphy.—The exhibits consist of figures, stone tablets with inscriptions, copper plate inscriptions and inscriptions on other materials. This section has a collection of seals of the late Anche (local post) used for granting receipts on postages levied in cash, arranged with a print from each on cardboard attached. This system of issuing receipts was in use in the State from the time of Chikka-Dēva-Rāja Wodeyar in the 17th century up to the year 1889, when the Department was amalgamated with the British Postal Service. A large Burmese bell presented in 1906 by Col. H. V. Cox in the name of the 69th Punjabis, when the Regiment left Bangalore, is also to be seen in this section. It was found in a Buddhist Temple and bears an inscription. The bell will be seen under the staircase in the entrance hall. A statue of Nammālvār, the Srivaishnava saint seated in the mode called *Padmāsana* expounding Dravida Prabandha, transferred from a ruined temple at Nanjangud; the Atakur Stone dated *Saka* 872 (950 A.D.); a facsimile of the Inscription of Sundara Pāndya at Srirangam and the Begur Stone (about 890 A.D.) on which will be found a rude but interesting battle scene represented, are other noteworthy objects in this section.

(a) Numismatics.—The collection is fair but not sufficiently representative. This Museum contains probably the finest known collection of purely Mysore coins. The 157 Roman Coins found near Subedar's Chattram, on the Bangalore-Hindupur Railway, dating between 23 B.C. to 51 A.D., and the Buddhist lead Coins found by Mr. A. Mervyn-Smith at Chandrawalli, Chitaldrug District are included in this section. Catalogues of Coins in the Museum

have been frequently issued by Government; the last published being by Capt. R. H. Tufnell. A new catalogue is under preparation.

(b) Art.—There are some palæolithic and neolithic exhibits as also a few modern examples of implements, pottery, jewellery, baskets, dress, musical instruments, etc.

With a view to advertise and encourage the products of arts and to enable the public to readily obtain good specimens of work of Mysore, an art sale room was opened in the Museum in August 1893 on the recommendation of Col. P. D. Henderson, c.s.i., then British Resident at Bangalore. This sale room was, however, abolished during the year 1913-14 and the articles belonging to it were transferred to the “Mysore Arts and Crafts Institute Sales Dépôt” which was opened under the auspices of the Mysore Economic Conference. Artware sales.

The Museum is maintained by Government. The grant made for its up-keep in 1923-24 was Rs. 3,900 and the expenditure incurred during the year was Rs. 3,695. Maintenance cost.

With a view to stimulate industrial and commercial activities in the State and to provide people with facilities to acquaint themselves with new commodities that can be manufactured within the State and the means by which local products may be made to withstand competition and find openings in other markets, Government passed Orders in 1917-18 on the establishment of Industrial and Commercial Museums which will be found dealt with in the Section on Arts and Manufactures. Industrial and Commercial Museum.

The Museum has been helpful in arranging for collections of local arts and manufacture required by foreign and other exhibitions—such as the Franko-British Exhibition, 1908, to which a collection of sandalwood carvings, rosewood articles inlaid with ivory and twenty-two samples of stone used in building the new Palace at Mysore was forwarded. A stand with folding panels to Aid to Foreign Exhibitions, etc.

exhibit the fine collection of bromide enlargements of Khedda operations, temples and rustic scenery, prepared for the Chicago Exhibition (1892-93) is deserving of mention. These pictures serve to give the sportsmen and tourists a fair idea of what can be seen in the State. The War Trophies (Three Machine Guns and Field Gun), which were brought from the Field with the Imperial Service Lancers Regiment, were lodged in the Museum in 1921.

SECTION 4—AMRUT MAHAL.

Prior to the Rendition.

Amrut Mahal
Cattle: Its
origin.

The “Karuhatti” establishment of the Vijayanagar Viceroy (sometime between 1572 and 1600) at Seringapatam consisted of Hallikar cows imported from Vijayanagar. This may be said to have been the nucleus of the Amrut Mahal cattle. The Seringapatam cattle passed into the hands of the Wodeyars of Mysore, some of whom, notably Chāmarāja Wodeyar (1617-1636), Kantirava Narasarāja Wodeyar (1638-1658), and the celebrated Chikka Dēvarāja Wodeyar (1672-1704) made their own additions to them from time to time, assigning “Kavals” in different parts of the kingdom.

Formation of
the Cattle
Department.

It was in Chikka Dēvarāja Wodeyar's time that the cattle establishment obtained recognition as one of the departments of the administration. It was called “*Benne Chavadi*” or establishment of cows “both as a breeding stud and to furnish milk and butter for the palace.” He introduced for the first time the system of branding them with his initial DE.

Under Haidar
Ali and Tipu
Sultān.

The accumulated herds of the Rājas of Mysore passed on to Haidar Ali, when he usurped the throne. In extending his conquest and in reducing the numerous rulers

who had held sway over more or less extensive tracts in Mysore, he acquired also the herds of superior cattle belonging to them. Haidar seems to have made extensive use of the cattle which he had appropriated in the movements of his army equipage and is popularly credited with having kept at least 60,000 bullocks in different parts of the State, though they were not organized as carefully and in as minute a detail as was afterwards done by Tipu, on a system which has in essential points been adhered to ever since. Tipu added to these herds those of the Palegar of Hagalvadi. Chikka Dēvarāja Wodeyar's suggestive name of "*Benne Chavadi*" was changed in his time into a more pompous one of Amrut Mahal from *Amruta*—Nectar. Tipu took great interest and issued a "Hukumnama" or regulation for the Department, the greater part of which continued to be observed after the taking of Seringapatam and the same system was afterwards followed by the British officers. The Dairy Department seems to have been on a large scale and Amildars were expected to train the young steers, which were allowed to graze in the raiyats' fields and were classified when required, as gun bullocks, plough bullocks, etc. There was an annual muster of the herds and Tipu frequently attended it in person and distributed rewards. Such was the composition of the Amrut Mahal cattle inaugurated by Chikka Dēvarāja Wodeyar, reconstituted by Haidar Alī and thoroughly organized by Tipu Sultān.

"It was this establishment," wrote Sir Mark Cubbon, "which enabled Haidar Alī to march 100 miles in two days and a half to the relief of Chidambaram and after every defeat to draw off his guns in the face of his enemies; which enabled Tipu Sultān to cross the peninsula in one month for the recovery of Bednur, and to march 63 miles in two days before General Meadows,

Historic
testimony
regarding the
value of the
breed.

which, in later times, enabled General Pritzler to march 346 miles in 25 days in pursuit of the Pēshwa; and which enabled General Campbell, after the failure of his Bengal equipments, to advance upon Ava and bring the war to a favourable termination. It was also this establishment which enabled the Duke of Wellington to execute those movements of unexampled rapidity which are the admiration of every military man and in consideration of whose services he recommended it to protection in a letter addressed at the close of the war to the Commander-in-Chief." Allusions in the Wellington *Despatches* show that the Great Duke often, during the Peninsular War in Spain, regretted that he had not the assistance of the Amrut Mahal cattle.

From 1799 to
1881.

After the fall of Seringapatam in 1799, the oxen attached to Tipu Sultān's army were taken over by the British and combined with their public cattle, while the breeding establishment, maintained for the purpose of securing a constant supply of suitable bulls, was left in charge of the State, on condition the State bore the cost of maintenance and offered to the Hon'ble the East India Company all male calves of 1½ years and upwards for 14 star pagodas a head. Another breeding establishment was also maintained by His Highness the Maharaja for his private use. Owing to the comparatively low value of land in those days, a large extent of land consisting of grazing grounds called *Kavals* was set apart for the use of these establishments.

The inducements which had led Haidar and Tipu to keep up its efficiency were, however, wanting and by the end of 1813, the cattle had degenerated to such a degree that the management was taken over by the British (Madras Government) and 10,914 head of breeding cattle, the exact number made over to His Highness' Government in 1800, were received back while the latter

Government allowed all rules, customs and privileges to continue as formerly. The whole of the *Kavals* allotted to the Amrut Mahal, amounting to 143, were delivered over to the British and continued upon the former system, the rent realized upon them being collected and paid by the British to the Mysore Government. The right of grazing, in alternate years, the stubble in villages in sixty taluks was also conceded. This latter privilege was withdrawn in the year 1835 as it was found to greatly hinder the efforts of the land-owners to improve their lands. A Commissariat officer (Captain Harvey) was placed in charge with a suitable establishment and up to the 31st July 1816, the number of cattle had increased to 14,399, exclusive of 900 calves transferred as fit for service. By 1823, the original number had nearly doubled itself, besides supplying for the public service young bullocks equal to one-fourth part of the increased establishment. In 1839, the above system having been found impossible to work consistently with justice and good order of the country, the Government of India deemed it indispensably necessary to place the breeding establishment in Mysore under the immediate control and management of the Commissioner for Mysore. In the year 1840, the Mahārāja's Amrut Mahal was taken over by the Chief Commissioner, a number of cattle required for the use of the palace being reserved with an allotment of the required extent of grazing land. The other Amrut Mahal establishment maintained by the British Military authorities was also transferred to the control of the Chief Commissioner. Both the establishments thus came under his direct control and a special officer was appointed for their management. A detailed survey of all the *Kavals* with the object of ascertaining their limits and the rights and privileges existing therein was also undertaken. In 1860, from motives of economy, Sir Charles Trevelyan, then Governor of Madras,

ordered the establishment to be broken up, and the herds to be sold and the *Kavals* surrendered to the Mysore State without any reservation but the results proved to the detriment of the public service. In the year 1865, the Madras Government, with the sanction of the Government of India, resolved upon re-establishing the Department. The Amrut Mahal was, therefore, with the cordial approval and assistance of the then Mahārāja, re-established in December 1867, with 5,935 head of cattle. All the *Kavals* which were formerly used by them and which had not been otherwise disposed of were reserved for grazing. On the death of the Mahārāja Krishnarāja Wodeyar Bahadur III in 1868, the number of the palace cattle was still further reduced and the 30 *Kavals* assigned to them were leased to the Madras Government on a nominal rental. In 1871, there were 9,800 head of all sizes, exclusive of 1,000 young male cattle in the Training Dépôt. It was arranged that 100 breeding bulls estimated at Rs. 8,000 as equivalent to a small rent in recognition of the sovereignty over all the *Kavals* in possession of the Commissariat Department, should be handed over to the Mysore Government annually to be stationed at various points in the country for the purpose of improving the breed of cattle used by the raiyats. This arrangement continued till the Rendition, a training dépôt was also maintained at Hunsur by the Madras Government, where these cattle were kept after purchase until they were trained for use as draught cattle.

**Herds and
Kavals.**

The cattle were divided into 30 herds containing from 200 to 700 head of cattle each ; for the grazing of which, 208 *Kavals* or pasture grounds were allotted in various parts of the country. *Kavals* are divided into hot weather and cold weather *Kavals* according to the seasons of the year during which they are of most use. The hot weather

Kavals are generally the beds of tanks in which grass springs up during the hot months and near which there are trees for the purpose of affording shade to the cattle during the heat of the day. These are very valuable *Kavals* and are reserved as far as possible for the sole use of Government cattle. The cold and wet weather *Kavals* are those which during those seasons have plenty of grass and water, but which during the hot weather dry up and are of little use to the department; in both the latter descriptions of *Kavals*, the raiyats' cattle are permitted to graze certain fixed portions, and after the Government cattle have left for their annual visit to the jungles, the *Servegars* are permitted to sell some part of the grazing, and from the funds thus obtained, the *Kavalgars* or guards are paid and other expenses met. This privilege ceases at the end of July each year. The right of grazing the stubble in the Amrut Mahal *Kavals* was being sold by the *Servegars* till 1919, when Government ordered that this right should be sold by the Amrut Mahal Department by public auction, the *Servegars* being paid 20 per cent of the net realizations to meet his expenses. In the dry weather, when want of forage and water prevails in the open country, the herds are conducted to the south-western jungles, where the natural moisture of the soil, the early showers, and the shelter afforded by the trees are favourable to vegetation. They arrive there in May and return to their pastures in September, when the grass is in great abundance all over Mysore.

The calves are castrated in November, the cold weather being found peculiarly favourable to the success of the operation, and invariably between the age of five and twenty-four months, as their growth is supposed to be promoted by early castration, and it is attended with this important advantage, that it prevents the cows being

Castration of calves.

impregnated by inferior bulls and consequently prevents the breed from degenerating.

Training the calves.

Till the year 1908-09 when bulls were supplied to Madras Government under contract, they were being separated from the herds after four years of age and transferred to the Public Cattle Department after a year, perfectly trained and fit for work. The supply of bulls to the Madras Government ceased from the year 1908-09. The Mysore Imperial Service Transport Corps having been converted into a bullock corps, the Amrut Mahal bulls are supplied to this corps at a fixed rate, the surplus cattle being sold annually by the Amrut Mahal Superintendent in different important centres. The average price realized from each bullock during the sale in 1920-21 was Rs. 146-9-11 which is the highest on record.

Their growth and decline.

They arrive at their full strength at seven and are past their vigour at twelve; they work till fourteen or fifteen, after which they decline rapidly and generally die at eighteen years of age.

Catching bullocks.

At the age of three years, the catching of bullocks takes place, previous to which they are nearly as wild as the inhabitants of the jungle. The bullocks are first driven into a large oval enclosure, which they are made to enter with much difficulty. This communicates with a square yard, surrounding an inner enclosure about twenty feet square, which is surrounded with a strong fence made of wooden posts placed close together and about twenty feet high. When they are collected in this, the opening is closed. The trainers then ascend on the top of the fence and throw a noose round each of the bullock's horns. This done, the end of the rope is passed between posts near the grounds, and the animal is drawn

close up and secured by people on the outside. The passage is then opened and old trained bullocks admitted. One of the latter is bound by the neck to one of the wild animals, which being done, the rope is loosened, when he immediately endeavours to escape. His trained comrade, however, to whom he is coupled, restrains him, though but partially; accordingly, the two leave the enclosure, at tolerable speed. The rope by which the untrained bullock was originally noosed is allowed to remain attached to his horns, and when they approach one of the strong posts placed in the immediate vicinity of the enclosure, the rope is quickly turned round it, by which the animals are again brought up. The untrained bullock is then well secured by the neck with as little latitude of motion as possible. There he is kept alone for about two days, until he becomes considerably tamed and worn out with unceasing efforts to escape.

The next operation consists in attaching to the animal a couple of blocks of wood so heavy as to be moved with some difficulty, and giving him as much liberty as this admits of. He is then admitted to the company of old trained cattle, and from the twofold effects of example and partial restraint, he gradually becomes submissive. The bullocks are then grazed. In the old days this was done (in the vicinity of Hunsur) for a further period of three years, being tied up regularly each evening in lines. They are then transferred to the Department to undergo final breaking for the public service.

After the Rendition.

On the 1st January 1882, the Mysore Government purchased at a cost of Rs. 2,25,000 the Amrut Mahal cattle from the Madras Government. It was stipulated that Madras Government should relinquish the pasture grounds and that the State should supply the Madras Government for ten years with three-year old bullocks

Stipulation
with the
Madras
Government.

at Rs. 50 per head not exceeding 400 in number annually. The Madras Government were allowed to retain the necessary grazing grounds for the use of the cattle forming the Training Depôt establishment, on the understanding that the grazing grounds were to be held only for the purposes and during the maintenance of the Depôt at Hunsur and, should at any time the said Training Depôt be given up, the grazing grounds will, *ipso facto*, at once revert, without any claim for price or compensation, to the Mysore State.

In 1886, the limit of supplying annually 400 bullocks was reduced to 200 at the same price. In the year 1891-92, the original term of ten years, the period of contract, expired and, in the following year, the contract was renewed for a further period of five years. The Madras Government discontinued purchasing the Amrut Mahal steers from 1907 owing to the reduction of establishment of transport bullocks in the Secunderabad Division. The Training Depôt at Hunsur was closed and the 16 *Kavals* belonging to the Training Depôt were handed back to the Mysore Government in March 1908.

Number of
herds, etc.

There were, in 1882, 30 herds with 12,502 head of which 4,618 were cows and 177 breeding bulls. The herds were organized into 7 *Tukadis* or Divisions each in charge of a Darôga. They were broken up in 1887, and their number reduced to sixteen. In 1889, steps were taken to form special herds of big and fine cattle. Towards the end of the year 1893-94, the number was increased to 22 and the divisions in charge of Darôgas from 4 to 6 in view to securing more efficient supervision of both men and cattle. During 1902-03, the number was reduced from 22 to 18 and from the savings thus effected, the pay of the executive staff was raised tentatively with the object of inducing qualified men to take

up service in the Department. In 1917-18, the number of cattle was 8,100. The number of herds was 18 under five Darogas and two Assistant Darogas. The average number of bulls and heifer calves produced each year was 1,445. The number of bulls was 122, the average being 7 for each herd. In September 1922, the Government decided to reduce the Department by one-third and throw open some of the *Kavals* for cultivation. This decision of Government is being given effect to gradually and at present (on 1st January 1924) there are 17 herds consisting of 2,356 bulls and 5,969 cows. At the close of the official year, 1923-24, the number of cattle was 8,049. The birth rate during the year was 27·6 as against 28·5 in the previous year. A Training Depôt was opened in September 1924 in Hunsur and it has proved helpful in placing broken cattle in the market which have brought in a high price.

Although the supply to British Government has been discontinued, the principal object of the Department has been to maintain the breed of the Amrut Mahal cattle at a high standard of purity and efficiency. It has also become possible now to supply a better class of young stock to the public. Steers are supplied to the Mysore Imperial Service Transport Corps after they are accustomed to being tied up.

Object of the
Department.

The Department was placed till 1896-97 in charge of the Military Assistant to Government assisted by an officer subject to his control. In August 1897, Government sanctioned the appointment of the Superintendent of the Amrut Mahal Department. The Department was made a subordinate branch under the control and direction of the Military Department of Government. The control and direction of the Department was transferred in 1915-16 from the Military Secretary to the Chief

Direction.

Commandant, Mysore State Troops. The control of the Department was transferred to the Director of Agriculture in September 1923 and the Live Stock Expert was placed in charge of it. The Department was subsequently placed under the direct control of the Director of Agriculture and the question of reorganising the Department and placing it on a more efficient basis is under the consideration of Government.

Throwing
open *Kavals*
for cultivation.

Till recently, the Department had 395,062 acres of pasture land. In 1915-16, Government ordered that a joint inspection of *Kavals* in each district should be held by the Deputy Commissioner and the Superintendent, Amrut Mahal Department, with a view to ascertain by local enquiries what extent of land can be conveniently spared for cultivation. In pursuance of this, it was arranged during the year to throw open 69,007 acres of the *Kavals* when *bona fide darkhasts* were received for them.

In 1918, an extent of 124,903 acres and 35 *guntas* of the Amrut Mahal Kaval lands were ordered to be surrendered to the Revenue Department. For securing the interests both of the raiyats and the Department, joint inspections of lands which are to be made over to the Revenue Department have been ordered to be made by the Deputy Commissioner concerned with the Amrut Mahal Superintendent; and it has been further ordered that lands should be selected only after such inspection.

A special Committee consisting of the Revenue Commissioner as Chairman, the Director of Agriculture, the Chief Commandant and the Amrut Mahal Superintendent was appointed by the Government to consider the question of throwing open more Kaval lands for cultivation. This Committee resolved to surrender 25,875 acres, 3 *guntas* of land to the Revenue Department. This surrender was accordingly carried out. At the same time,

of the Kaval lands previously surrendered, 49,631 acres, which were not fit for cultivation, were retransferred to the Amrut Mahal Department. The area reserved to the Department for grazing purposes was only 251,905 acres on the 1st January 1924. This acreage includes some State Forests and Tank-beds as well. During the year 1923-24, a further extent of 6,148 acres was surrendered to the Revenue Department. The number of acres at the disposal of the Department on 1st July 1921 was 317,614 and the area placed under the Revenue Department for cultivation, subsequent to the above Government order, amounted to 77,448 acres. During the year 1923-24, an extent of 6,148 acres valued at Rs. 3,07,400 was surrendered by the Department.

The distribution of the Kavals between the different herds has been revised so as to concentrate the *Kavals* as much as possible in contiguous taluks instead of having the *Kavals* attached to one herd dispersed over several districts, and a proportion has been reserved under the direct control of the Amrut Mahal Officer to provide for unforeseen contingencies such as failure of rain, outbreaks of disease, etc.

Distribution
of Kavals.

The eighteen excess *Kavals*, nine in the Bangalore District and nine in the Mysore District, covering an extent of 18,373 acres, in the possession of the British Military Department, were retroceded to the Durbar in 1917 and about 18,000 acres of plantations and *Kaval* lands in the Kolar, Bangalore and Tumkur Districts were leased to the British Military Grass Farm authorities in that year for a period of ten years at an annual rental of Rs. 11,423. The terms of the lease are printed as an accompaniment to the Government Order No. R. 9071-7—Ft. 46-06-76, dated 28th February 1917.

Retrocession
and lease of
some of the
Kavals.

Effects of
seasonal
conditions.

The Amrut Mahal cattle being supported entirely on such grazing as is to be had in the *Kavals*, their welfare is primarily dependent on the season. When rain has been plentiful, it has often been unseasonable or unequally distributed; and the effects of a bad season are felt not only in the increased number of deaths, but in diminished births, both in that and the succeeding year.

The size of the cattle depends a good deal on the favourable character of the two first seasons after they are born. If rain fails during that period, pasture is scarce, the young animals are stunted and never develop properly, and the proportion of large sized bullocks produced is very small when compared with the total number born.

Registry of
cattle.

The cattle are registered by means of branding calves with herd and serial numbers and periodical returns are submitted to Government showing births, deaths and other details. The arrangement has the effect of securing more accurate statistics and to some extent prevents fraud.

Supply of
breeding bulls
and cows.

The special breed of the Amrut Mahal cattle, which is peculiar to Mysore, has been attracting the attention of cattle breeders in India and also in foreign countries. In November 1907, an application was received, through the Inspector-General, Civil Veterinary Department, Calcutta, for two good specimen bulls and three cows for being sent to England for breeding purposes to meet the wishes of His Grace the Duke of Bedford. Good animals were selected and trained and delivered at Bombay about the end of March 1908 for being shipped to England. During 1913-14, at the request of the Professor of Agriculture at Poona, 10 breeding bulls were supplied to him. Special facilities are also afforded to the raiyats for obtaining bulls for breeding purposes. Three bulls

are supplied to each District Board and bulls are also sold at half price to raiyats owning large herds of cattle. Six bulls have been supplied free of cost, as an experimental measure, to the villages bordering on the Western Ghats in the Nagar and Sagar Taluks of the Shimoga District where, in spite of an abundance of pasturage and a plentiful supply of water, the condition of cattle is very poor. The average price of each bull given to the raiyat for breeding purposes is fixed by Government at Rs. 150.

The old practice of granting presents to Servegars, etc., of the Department for the best results shown was revived during 1908-09. An allotment of Rs. 300 annually in the budget is made for this purpose. Rewards are given in the shape of gold and silver bangles.

Rewards to
cattle
attendants.

During the year 1889-90, with a view to improve the breed of sheep, a farm was started under the charge of the Department. At the end of that year, the farm consisted of six rams of Australian cross-breed and 56 ewes. No separate establishment was sanctioned for the farm. The work was carried on with the aid of the attendants of the herd of the Tumkur Range, the Darōga of which had the control over it. In 1895-96, there were 1,926 head in the farm. During that year, all the good young rams were reserved to be distributed to owners of flocks and a beginning made to improve the breed. In 1897-98, a permanent establishment at a cost of Rs. 21 per mensem for the better management of the Australian flock of sheep was sanctioned. A sum of Rs. 200 was also sanctioned for the construction of sheds to protect the above sheep against the weather. The maintenance of the farms under each of the six Darōgas not having been found profitable, arrangements were made in 1901-02 to dispose of all the flock retaining about

A Sheep
Farm.

250 sheep of Australian and Cashmere breeds. There were 188 female and 73 male Australian sheep during 1918-19. The control over the sheep farm was in September 1921 transferred to the Live Stock Expert in Mysore, for being managed as a separate concern at different centres in the State.

Cattle pounds. The necessity of erecting a few cattle pounds in some of the *Kavals* to prevent trespass of village cattle was sanctioned by Government in 1906-07. A few pounds in some of the important *Kavals* have also been opened since then.

Sinking wells. Government in 1906-07 raised the grant of Rs. 460 to Rs. 800 for sinking wells and restoring old tanks in some of the *Kavals* for watering cattle during the hot season. The work of restoring every year old *Kattes* in some of the more important *Kavals* has been kept in view by the Department.

Receipts and Expenditure. The receipts and expenditure of the Department during 1920-21 were 60,580 and 43,068 respectively as against 123,524 which is the highest on record and 39,493 of the previous year, *viz.*, 1919-20. Owing to adverse seasonal conditions and slackness in the cattle market, the receipts have not been favourable during the last few years. During 1922-23, the receipts amounted to Rs. 59,874 and the expenditure to Rs. 33,258. The gross revenue of the Department has, however, increased to Rs. 96,334 in the year 1923-24, the expenditure during the year remaining at Rs. 37,058. The contract for supplying bullocks to the Military having ceased, the Department is being now worked as a high class cattle breeding and quasi-commercial concern, for the benefit of the agriculturists and others interested in cattle breeding. Raiyats are encouraged to take up breeding of

these high class animals instead of the inferior animals, and the fact that these high class animals are available for sale is published widely to attract breeders from outside the State. Male stock of all ages and female stock of more than 10 years and some young heifers also are sold by auction at different centres in the months of November, December and January every year. Animals are also available for sale at all times on *darkhast* at fixed prices. The animal sales are advertised in the leading English and vernacular papers. A small training Depôt has also been established for the present at Hunsur, where a small number of animals are trained to rope, and yoke also; animals are specially trained for customers under separate arrangement at moderate charges. During the official year 1923-24, the number of cattle sold was 679 against 625 in the previous year. The amount realized from the sales in 1923-24 totalled to Rs. 41,150 against Rs. 39,715 in 1922-23, the average realization per head in 1923-24 being Rs. 60-6-0 as against Rs. 63-9-0 in the previous year. The question of reorganizing the Department and placing it on a more efficient basis is now under the consideration of Government.

The receipts and expenditure of the Department during 1920-21 were Rs. 60,580 and Rs. 43,068 respectively as against Rs. 1,23,524, which is the highest on record, and Rs. 39,493 of the previous year, *viz.*, 1919-20.

Receipts and
Expenditure.

SECTION 5—THE VETERINARY DEPARTMENT.

With a view to start and eventually develop bacteriological investigation of cattle diseases, the Government, in April 1905, approved of the Senior Surgeon's proposal to give the necessary training to the Veterinary Officer attached to the Imperial Service Regiment, by deputing him to undergo a three months' course of training in the

Origin of the
Department.

Bacteriological Laboratory, Bangalore. The beginnings of the Civil Veterinary Department were laid in 1905-06 by the appointment of a trained Veterinarian in March 1906 as an Inspector of Cattle Diseases. He was at first placed under the control of the Chemical Examiner and Bacteriologist to Government and subsequently, in 1906-07, under the Revenue Commissioner for purposes of efficient control and discipline. His duties were to investigate the nature of epidemic diseases among cattle, to visit localities where such diseases were prevalent and to adopt measures for checking their ravages. He was also to devote his attention to improve veterinary knowledge in rural parts by organising and encouraging local effort, and by instructing rural cattle doctors and large cattle owners in the scientific diagnosis of cattle diseases and a proper application of easily available indigenous drugs.

Its organiza-
tion.

During 1906-07, the scheme was further developed and, in September 1907, with a view to adopt systematic measures for investigation, prevention and treatment of diseases of horses and cattle belonging to the raiyats, Government sanctioned the scheme proposed by the Revenue Commissioner for the organization of the Civil Veterinary Department at a cost of Rs. 49,776 annually, when fully introduced, besides an initial cost of Rs. 10,000 for opening 12 hospitals and 18 dispensaries throughout the State.

Provision was, however, made for the establishment of only seven hospitals and dispensaries, one in each of the districts in addition to one at Bangalore, as the entire scheme could not be brought into operation for want of a sufficient number of qualified men. The recruitment of the necessary staff and their preliminary training began in January 1908, when the hospital at Bangalore was started, and, on the 1st of May of the same year,

hospitals and dispensaries were opened at Kolar, Mysore, Hassan, Chikmagalur and Chitaldrug. Two more were opened in April 1909, one at Tumkur and the other at Shimoga. Each of the district head-quarters has now the benefit of a veterinary hospital with an Assistant Inspector in charge thereof. Two additional Assistant Veterinary Inspectors were appointed temporarily in November 1910 to be employed chiefly on inoculation work in places where infectious cattle diseases prevail and were made permanent during 1913-14.

In his address to the Representative Assembly in October 1917, Sir M. Visvesvaraya, the then Dewan, said that "in view of the increasing demand for veterinary aid, Government propose to start from two to four new dispensaries every year, for some time to come. During 1916-17, dispensaries were started at Channapatna, Bangalore District; Nagamangala, Mysore District; Davangere, Chitaldrug District; and Sagar, Shimoga District. Four dispensaries were opened, during 1917-18, at Chikballapur, Kolar District; Madhugiri, Tumkur District; Saklespur, Hassan District; and Tarikere, Kadur District. During 1919-20, four more dispensaries were opened at Doddballapur, Bangalore District; Chintamani, Kolar District; Hunsur, Mysore District; and Channagiri, Shimoga District. During 1923-24, three dispensaries were opened at Challakere, Chitaldrug District; Arsikere, Hassan District; and Malvalli, Mysore District; bringing the total number of Veterinary Hospitals and dispensaries at the close of the year 1923-24 to twenty-three.

The most common diseases met with in the State are rinderpest, black-quarter, foot and mouth disease, anthrax and hæmorrhagic septicæmia. Preventive measures, such as inoculation of all healthy cattle against the various diseases, have been found very successful. As soon as any infectious disease breaks out in a village, the nearest

Preventive
inoculation.

Veterinary Inspector, on request, visits the infected place and inoculates all the healthy cattle free of charge and also renders all necessary assistance to cattle owners. Preventive inoculation has completely removed the superstition of the raiyat population and the demand for it has considerably increased.

The following statement shows the total number of inoculations made in the whole State during the year 1923-24 :—

Rinderpest	Blackquarter	Hæmorrhagic Septicæmia	Anthrax	Total
41,664	16,194	5,277	7,068	70,203

Lectures and
Demonstra-
tions.

Advantage is taken, by the Department, of the numerous Cattle Shows, Taluk Conferences and other public gatherings to deliver lectures to the population on repression of contagious diseases, curative treatment of Rinderpest and Septicæmia Hæmorrhagica and other diseases and the improvement of milch cattle. The advantages derived by them from the veterinary institutions by resorting to them in time and sending up the outbreak reports promptly are also explained.

Even when there are no outbreaks of any epidemic disease, Assistant Veterinary Inspectors in charge of Hospitals and Dispensaries have to go on a systematic tour of 10 and 15 days respectively every month, on propagandist work, visiting village after village in their respective jurisdictions and giving any professional aid that may be necessary.

The District Veterinary Inspectors have been instructed to prepare short leaflets on cattle diseases, cattle breeding and rearing, the preservation and economy of fodder and to distribute them freely among cattle owners during their itineration. They have also been instructed

to carry a small quantity of drugs and the more common surgical appliances to demonstrate to the cattle owners the advantages of modern methods of treatment. A "*Manual of Veterinary Science*" in Kannada called "*Pasu Vaidya Sangraha*" has been published by Government and kept ready for sale to the public, at the Central Book Depôt, Bangalore.

The treatment of cattle in the State is free. At the Veterinary Hospitals of Bangalore and Mysore, a fee of four annas is charged for a horse and one anna for a dog per day for treatment. For the castration of a horse or pony, the charge is Rs. 5 for a country bred and Rs. 10 for a thorough bred animal exclusive of feeding and grooming, which the owner of the animal has to arrange for. *Tats* belonging to Shanbhogs, Patels and other raiyats are castrated free.

Treatment of cattle.

In order to prevent deterioration and to improve the breed of cattle, vigorous steps are being taken to have all deformed and stunted bulls castrated by an improved method, in addition to placing good breeding bulls in several Veterinary Institutions and sending them from village to village, for service. Though it is hard to convince the raiyats of the usefulness of early and comparatively painless improved method of castration, no less than 7,200 bulls have been castrated during the year 1920-21, showing that, in course of time, the raiyats will resort only to this method.

During 1914-15, the formation of a mobile corps consisting of 4 Veterinary Assistant Inspectors and 4 Salustries was sanctioned for undertaking, in co-operation with the Madras Civil Veterinary Department, an organized campaign against Rinderpest in the frontier taluks for a period of 3 years. In February 1918, orders were passed increasing the number of these Assistant Inspectors to 3

A mobile corps.

who would form a sort of Mobile Corps to be deputed for work according to necessity in any part of the State, under the orders of the Superintendent, for duty on occasion of epidemics.

Re-organiza-
tion of the
Department.

The Department was re-organized in 1918 under Government Order No. R. 8854-63—Agri. 27-16-11, dated 27th February 1918, and in 1920 under Government Order No. R. 13584-5—R. M. 22-19-14, dated 22nd June 1920 and again in 1921 under Order No. 7255-6—A. & E. 80-20-5, dated 5th February 1921. The Office of the Superintendent was also re-organized in Government Order No. 10652-3—A. & E. 80-20, dated 3rd May 1921. The ultimate strength and cost of the establishments according to the re-organization of the Department is shown below :—

Superin- tendent	Assistant Superin- tendents	Veterinary Officers	Veterinary Inspectors	Office Estab- lish- ment	Hospital & Dispen- sary Sub- ordinates	Total
1 on Rs. 300-15-500	2 on Rs. 150-10-200	2 on Rs. 120-10-140	4 on Rs. 97-2-107 38 on Rs. 72-5-97 and 19 on Rs. 47-5-72	13	95	66,147

During 1918-19, the Department was managed by one Assistant Superintendent, four Veterinary Inspectors and 14 Assistant Veterinary Inspectors.

In addition to the revised scale of pay, a charge allowance of Rs. 10 per month to the Assistant Veterinary Inspectors in charge of an hospital or dispensary was sanctioned in 1918-19 by Government to make the service more attractive.

Administra-
tion.

The Department was under the control of the Revenue Commissioner till September 1920, when it was transferred to the control of the Director of Agriculture in Mysore.

According to the new scheme, the executive gazetted staff consists of a Superintendent with head-quarters at Bangalore and two Assistant Superintendents with head-quarters, one at Bangalore and the other at Shimoga. The Superintendent inspects Hospitals and Dispensaries and has general supervision and control of the work of the Veterinary Officers and Inspectors. The Assistant Superintendents having jurisdiction over 4 Districts each supervise the work of Veterinary Inspectors and direct all operations in their jurisdiction to prevent the spread of epidemics and supervise cattle breeding operations. They will also be in charge of propagandist work giving lectures to rural population on Veterinary subjects.

The officers of the Department are recruited from persons holding diplomas from the Veterinary College of Bombay or Madras or other recognized Veterinary Institutes in India. Three scholarships of the value of Rs. 40 per mensem at Lahore and one of the value of Rs. 30 at Bombay are being granted for the study of Veterinary Science.

A consulting library has been formed in the office of the Superintendent. It is well equipped with many choice and useful standard works. Besides, the Department is supplied with periodical journals which are circulated among the Veterinary Inspectors of the Department.

A Veterinary Library.

The services of the Department are being appreciated by the cattle owners and there has been an increasing demand for more veterinary institutions in every district.

Results achieved.

To make provision for the prevention of cruelty to animals, the "Prevention of Cruelty to Animals Regulation" (No. I of 1895) was passed in June 1895.

Prevention of Cruelty to Animals Regulation.

This Regulation virtually repealed the Bengal Act, I of 1869, which was in force only in the City of Bangalore within municipal limits. Under Sections 3 and 4 of this Regulation, cruelty to animals in public places and sale, in such places, of animals killed with unnecessary cruelty, and the operation called *phuka*, are punishable with fine which may extend to Rs. 100 or with imprisonment for a term which may extend to 3 months or with both. Killing animals with unnecessary cruelty is punishable under Section 5 of this Regulation with fine which may extend to Rs. 200 or with imprisonment for a term which may extend to 6 months or with both. Under Sections 6 and 7, employing anywhere animals unfit for labour and permitting diseased animals to go at large or to die in public places are punishable with fine which may extend to Rs. 100. The Regulation is in force in all district head-quarters and Section 57 of the new Police Regulation gives the Police full powers to deal with all instances of flagrant cruelty to animals.

Regulation VI
of 1899.

To provide for and regulate the destruction and segregation of stray dogs and of diseased horses and cattle, Regulation VI of 1899 was passed in December 1899. A breach of the rules under this Regulation is punishable with fine which may extend to Rs. 50 and when the breach is a continuing one, with a further fine which may extend to Rs. 5 for every day after the first during which the breach continues.

SECTION 6—THE GOVERNMENT PRESS.

Prior to the Rendition.

Early
History.

In the year 1840, the Reverend J. Garret who was managing a Printing Press for the Wesleyan Mission in Bangalore appears to have influenced Sir Mark Cubbon

the then Chief Commissioner, to establish a Government Press for doing Government printing.

The suggestion was taken up and the Government Press was established in the year 1843 for the purpose of printing Departmental Proceedings, forms, records and other miscellaneous matter. Eventually, Mr. Garret himself was appointed as the first Superintendent of the Government Press. The *Mysore Gazette* was first published in 1866 by Mr. L. Ricketts as Editor, and the office of Compiler of the *Mysore Gazette* was held independently by Mr. J. Lacey from 1867 to 1869, when it was combined with that of the Superintendent, Government Press. At this time, the Press consisted of only 5 Hand Presses and a small staff of about 30 men. The Press was first located in the old Tippu Sultan's Palace, Fort, Bangalore, and subsequently, on the completion of the Public Office Buildings, was removed there. A separate building for the Press consisting of one quadrangle was built in 1873.

After the Rendition.

Mr. T. T. Leonard was appointed full-time Superintendent in 1886 and during the time he held office, which continued for about 13 years, a number of improvements were effected, of which the most important was the replacement, in part, of Hand-Press printing by machines three of which were imported in 1893. Two more machines were added in 1903. A second quadrangle was added to the main building in 1894.

Development
of the Press.

During 1903-04, on the suggestion of the Superintendent, Government Press, Mr. Fisher of the Madras Government Press was asked to inspect the Central Press, Bangalore, and he made certain proposals for improvement. Upon a consideration of the opinions of the Committee appointed to report on the proposals

Re-organisa-
tion of 1905.

of Mr. Fisher, the following measures were sanctioned in April 1905:—

(1) The appointment of a competent expert as Superintendent of the Press ;

(2) Increase of pay to the Manager and Foreman and the abolition of overtime allowances to them ;

(3) Amalgamation of the Jail Press with the Central Press ;

(4) Relieving the Press entirely of the work of translating Government Orders and Notifications ;

(5) Construction of an additional block to increase the accommodation ;

(6) Purchase of new machinery and types ;

(7) Installation of an electric motor at the Press for working the printing and other machines, as well as for lighting the Press buildings ;

(8) Reforms in the system of payments and accounts ;
and

(9) Preparation of a Press Manual.

As the outcome of the re-organization, a competent expert was appointed Superintendent of the Press early in the year 1905-06 and all the other measures were carried out. A suitable Type Store Room furnished with ample drawer accommodation in supercession of the previous arrangements was also provided. The quality of book binding was improved by the appointment of a competent person from Madras. Electric light was installed throughout the Central Press premises in September 1905. To provide more space, a third quadrangle was added to the main building in 1914. The machines which were formerly driven by an oil engine are all now propelled by electric power, resulting in considerable economy and greater output.

Besides this, twelve more machines were added between the years 1905 and 1915, so that printing is now exclusively done by machines, the hand presses having been completely discarded for purposes of print-

ing. There are at present (on 30th June 1925) ruling, sawing, cutting, folding, stitching and other machines, type casting machines and stereo typing plant 1 Thompson type casting machine, 3 Lithographic presses and 2 monotype machines, 65 in all and about 70 tons of types valued at Rs. 2,11,873.

There was a Branch Press at the Central Jail, Bangalore, worked by convict labour under the Superintendent of the Jail. This was amalgamated during 1905-06 with the Central Press, Bangalore. Another attached to the Central College, Bangalore, which continues to this day, is now independent of the Government Press. Branch
Presses.

A Branch Press was established in Mysore in November 1888 for the purpose of printing and binding papers connected with the Dewan's Camp Office, the Palace Department and Her Highness the Maharani's Girls' School. This was at first attached to the Jaganmohan Palace but with the increase of work, new buildings had to be found for it. Accordingly, it was transferred to the old Distillery building near the Kukkarahalli tank. It had an establishment, under a Foreman, of 24 men at an average monthly cost of Rs. 339 but was considerably enlarged and re-organized in April 1919 with a view to cope with the extra work of the new University and the Railway Departments. Additional buildings at a cost of Rs. 28,380 have been erected. The permanent establishment of the Press now consists of 61 men at a monthly cost of Rs. 1,225 under the supervision of an Assistant Superintendent. Additional machinery has been installed to cope with the increased work and there were, at the end of June 1925, 8 printing machines and presses, 9 binding machines and 1 Thompson type casting machine, the total value of same being Rs. 23,423. The total value of the types in the Press on 30th June 1925 was Rs. 16,526. During the Dasara and the Birthday week,

the staff is augmented by men from Bangalore to cope with the immediate and very heavy work.

On the 23rd August 1898, a Secretariat Branch Press was organised, in view specially to the printing of Government Proceedings, monthly Volumes, and other Secretariat work more expeditiously than before. This Branch Press was for a short time located in the Public Offices, but was afterwards removed to the Central Press buildings, which were extended on both sides, so as to afford sufficient accommodation to the increasing staff.

**Kannada
Typography.**

Steps have been taken from time to time to improve Kannada typography. In 1917-18, arrangements were made to provide clear and readable types both for Government and the private Presses. Kannada letters of the alphabet were drawn by an expert Draughtsman and after proper scrutiny by the Inspector-General of Education and the Government were sent to a well-known House of type-founders, the Thompson Type Machine Company of Chicago, America, for making the necessary matrices for casting the required types on the Firm's Typesetting machines, which are installed in the Government Press. It has been decided that the types so cast may be made available for sale to private printers at a cheap rate so that a uniform kind of standard Kannada type may be generally made available for printers' use throughout the State.

Braille Press.

Experiments have been made in the production of Braille type (where books suitable for reading by blind boys may be printed) with encouraging results and the printing of books in Braille has been accomplished and the blind boys of the Deaf and Dumb School at Mysore are now reading from books printed from this type.

**Establish-
ment.**

The fixed establishment of the Central Press consisted of 124 men at the average cost of Rs. 2,187 per

month; but, owing to the heavy increase of work consequent on the policy of development inaugurated by Government, the establishment was re-organised in July 1919. It now consists of 134 men at an average monthly cost of Rs. 3,492. With a view to centralise the printing work done for the departments of the State, the officer in charge of the department is styled the "Superintendent, Government Printing." He is assisted by a Sub-Assistant Superintendent, the Assistant Superintendent being placed in charge of the Branch Press at Mysore. Two Probationers, who had been deputed to England in 1912-13 for studying improved methods in printing and its auxiliary branches, returned towards the close of the year 1914-15 after undergoing a satisfactory course of training there for three years and were appointed Sub-Assistant Superintendents in the Government Press. They were later appointed Assistant Superintendents. One of them is now the Superintendent at the head of the Department and the other, an Assistant Superintendent in charge of the Branch Press at Mysore. Two more Probationers have been taken on, one of whom has since become Sub-Assistant Superintendent while the other is still under training.

Government, in 1917-18, ordered an investigation into the matter of the reduction and relief of congestion of work in the Press. As the result of the Superintendent's report in the matter, orders have been passed effecting appreciable savings.

The chief functions of the Department are :—

Functions of
the
Department.

(1) Printing of matter sent by Government and the several public departments ;

(2) Publication of the *Mysore Gazette* ;

(3) Control of all printing works in the State subject to the scrutiny of Government ; and

(4) Registration of authorised publications.

General and
Education
Courses.

A Day School has been established for the boys in the Press, where they receive elementary education in the three R's during a portion of the day as a foundation for entering upon a technical course. In 1915-16, a technical school was opened in the Press premises to train boys in printing. Government have sanctioned scholarships ranging from Rs. 3 to 7 as an encouragement to the students taking up technical education and these are being awarded every year. Every facility is given to the employees of the Press to study and appear for the technical examinations of the Government of Madras. Many have profited by this arrangement and have secured passes. Private printers have also been invited to join the printing class and some who have been desirous of starting Printing Presses of their own have availed themselves of this facility.

Government
Press
Manual.

The entire rules of procedure together with the Standing Orders of Government issued from time to time to regulate the working of the Press are embodied in a *Manual* which is now in use.

SECTION 7—STATIONERY.

Prior to the
Rendition.

The Stationery Depôt was in existence from 1865 as part of the Public Offices and was established for the purpose of arranging for the supply of articles of stationery required for the various departments of the State from a central source. The stationery required for the several departments was, till 1872-73, procured direct from the well-known firm of Messrs. De La Rue & Co., London, at an average cost of Rs. 30,000 per annum. Under the orders of the Government of India in the Financial Department No. 402, dated 23rd May 1871, the Stationery Indents were forwarded through the Foreign Department to Her Majesty's Secretary of State for India for sanction and compliance.

In 1881, the Stationery Dépôt was constituted into a separate department and Mr. T. T. Leonard was appointed as Superintendent of Stationery, but the office continued to be located in the Public Offices, as part of the Dewan's Office till 1898, when it was removed to the present buildings. In 1886, the Department was amalgamated with the Press and the two departments were placed under a Superintendent. This arrangement has continued up-to-date. The cost of establishment was fixed at Rs. 2,976 per annum with an allowance of Rs. 700 for contingencies.

After the
Rendition.

The Stationery Office is under the administrative control of the Chief Secretary to Government, the Superintendent, Government Stationery, being in immediate charge. The Superintendent is assisted by the Supervisor who is the ministerial head of the office.

The chief functions of the Department are :—

(1) Preparing a forecast of the stationery articles required for use in the various departments and arranging for their purchase out of allotment.

(2) Supplying on indent stationery articles to the Government departments which are entitled to the same under general or special orders of Government.

(3) Keeping a sufficient stock of printed forms required by the Government departments and arranging for their supply on indents.

The staff consists of a Supervisor, a Store-keeper, 6 Clerks and 9 Attenders.

The work in the office of the Stationery Department is regulated by a *Manual* prescribed by Government.

The stationery stores required for the use of the Government are obtained by purchase from private firms in England and in India.

Purchase of
Stationery.

Supply of
Stationery
and Forms.

The stationery articles are kept in the Stationery Depôt at Bangalore and distributed therefrom to all the departments in the State in accordance with indents received from them. The various departments and offices in the State are, for this purpose, classified under two heads—(1) those entitled to a free supply of stationery and (2) those that get their supply only on paying for the same by means of book adjustment. The Heads of Departments send their annual indents for stationery direct to the Depôt while subordinate offices submit their indents through their Heads of Departments, who check and countersign them before forwarding. The indents are checked and carefully scrutinised by the Stationery Depôt, which issues a fresh supply after considering the supply and expenditure of stationery during the previous year. Paper for printing the *Mysore Gazette*, the Proceedings of Government, Educational works and forms required for the various departments in the State are also issued from the Depôt after a careful examination of the indents. In recent years, the supply of typewriting and carbon papers and ribbons has also been undertaken by the Stationery Depôt.

Advantages
of a Central
Depôt.

The stocking and the supply of various articles of stationery from a central office is calculated to lead to greater economy and uniformity in the articles supplied. Efforts have been made of late years to put a stop to the use and waste of expensive kinds of paper and to substitute cheaper descriptions in every practicable case. During 1905-06, orders were passed for the supply of stationery from the Stationery Depôt to the Taluk offices in the State which used to buy all stationery locally. This reform, while ensuring the use of good paper for all Taluk correspondence, has resulted in a net saving of Rs. 4,000 nearly.

The subjoined table shows the development of the Stationery Dépôt during the last 27 years.

Statistics of
Receipts,
Issues and
Purchases.

Year	Receipts	Issues	Value of Indian purchases	Value of European purchases
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1896—97	85,960	85,288	36,173	43,122
1901—02	97,364	94,306	55,479	31,826
1906—07	1,14,545	1,00,840	72,874	27,517
1911—12	1,12,341	1,15,672	34,583	60,182
1916—17	2,37,931	2,79,543	1,29,901	84,695
1917—18	3,54,808	2,82,804	2,37,867	83,115
1918—19	2,66,485	2,34,427	2,32,728	902
1919—20	2,04,797	...
1920—21	2,76,378	2,96,779	2,36,072	...
1921—22	3,01,722	3,34,290	2,64,718	...
1922—23	1,85,231	1,59,663	1,45,247	...
1923—24	1,54,876	1,54,207	6,061	1,20,175

Comprehensive rules were issued in 1904 to regulate the supply of stationery and forms to the several offices of the State.

Rules re
Supply of
Stationery
and Forms.

Actual stock of store on hand is taken in January every year and the result submitted to Government and, on receipt of orders, the excesses and deficiencies are adjusted.

Stock-Taking.

SECTION 8—WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.

Chikka-Dēva-Rāja Wodeyar who ruled Mysore in the 17th century (*vide* Volume II, *Historical*) is said to have called in the seals used in the eighty-four *gadis* or taluks, and finding that they varied greatly, he had a common seal made, bearing the monogram of *De* in the middle, with the sun and moon, surrounded by a circle, containing the name of the *gadi*. A gold ring with this seal engraved on it was given to each Amildar. Silver ones, with only *De* on them, were given to the *hobli* and village officials, and the customs and tax collectors. Wooden stamps (*mudrekol*) with the same monogram between the sun and moon were provided, to be kept in each *chavadi* and used

Weights and
Measures:
their origin.

by the *totis*, *taluvans* and *nirgantis*, as directed by the heads of villages, to be affixed to houses of criminals or defaulters and on the heaps of grain divided between the Government and the cultivators.

The same stamp was engraved on standard weights and measures ordered to be used in shops and markets. The weight of 3 *Kanthiraya hanas* being taken as equal to 1 *duddu*, the following was the scale of weights fixed :—

1 Duddu	=	1 tola
24 Duddus	=	1 kachcha seer
10 Kachcha seers	=	1 dhadiya
4 Dhadiyas	=	1 chikka mana
44-46 Seers	=	1 dodda mana

Weights and
Measures in
1800.

The weights or dry measures in this country were of two kinds, both defined very accurately. One of them was called the bazaar weight and used in the sale of what are called bazaar articles, such as tamarind, turmeric, and all kinds of drugs. The other was used for grain both in the bazaars and in all revenue transactions. The great difficulty lay in the multiplicity of weights used in different districts; for, almost every town had weights and measures differing widely from all those in its neighbourhood. The consequence of this was that the cunning *banyas* frequently took advantage of this multiplicity to deceive strangers. The inhabitants of the place could not be so easily taken in as they were all well acquainted with their own peculiar weights and measures.

The only general and uniform measure and weight was the *pucca seer* of sixty-four dubs weight. And the weight of a dub was four drams. This seer altered according to the weight of the dub. If these were lighter than four drams, more dubs were required to make up the seer; if they were heavier, fewer would do. This measure appears in some writings of very old date, as in the *Sūdra-Ganitam*, yet it is said to be of Moorish origin. It had made its

way into all accounts and had, as it were, dislodged all other weights.

Both fluids and dry articles were determined by weight, with the exception of oil, for the sale of which a kind of graduated measure was employed. All kinds of grain, by common consent, were sold by a measure which was not merely filled, but heaped up as high as possible above the lips. If a person bought only half the measure, he had to lose the heaped part, which generally amounted to 1/7th or 1/6th of the whole. The lowest standard weight was the dub. Smaller quantities were determined by common fractions. They ascended regularly by fours.

It was a very common practice to mention in the settlement of a bargain the weight to be employed. The common weight fixed upon was the copper coin of the country, and if large quantities of any article had to be weighed, stones, the weight of which was previously determined, were employed for the purpose. The common scales were nearly flat baskets suspended from a balanced pole, which was tied to a noose. It was the usual practice to weigh the article first in one scale and then in the other and nobody bought any article without seeing that this precaution was attended to.

The seer (ser) is the standard of weight and measure. The *Kachcha* seer is equal to the weight of 24 rupees or 6,607 lb. avoirdupois. Forty seers=1 *mana* (maund) and 20 *manas*=1 *khandi* (candy). By this weight, are sold areca-nut, sugar, drugs, cotton, silk, etc.

The standard
of weight and
measure.

Oil and ghee are frequently sold by measure, a seer weight of oil being put into a cylindrical brass vessel that exactly contains it, which serves afterwards as a standard.

The *pakka seer* (pucka seer) is formed by mixing equal quantities of the *nava dhānya* or nine kinds of grain (rice, uddu, hesaru, hurali, togari, avare, kadale, ellu and wheat) and then by taking 84 Rupees weight of the mixture

which is put into a vessel that will exactly contain it when heaped. This serves for a standard and measures 74·8125 cubical inches or '3592 gallons.

This is the dry measure, of which 20 *kolagas* or *kudu* everywhere make 1 *khandaga* or *khandi*, but the number of seers to the *kolaga* is different in different parts. The Sultāni *kolaga*, established by Tipu Sultān, contained 16 seers. One of 8 seers is called the Krishnarāja *kolaga* being 1/20th of the Krishnarāja *khandi* established by Dewan Purnaiya. The *kolaga* of 10 seers is called *kharāru kolaga*.

The Mysore
Weights and
Measures
Regulation.

To regulate the use of weights and measures of capacity in the State, the "Mysore Weights and Measures Regulation" (No. III of 1902) was passed in July 1902. Under Section 2 of this Regulation, power to prescribe the standards of weight and measure and to make rules to regulate the shapes, dimensions and designations, the method of testing weights and measures, etc., vests with Government.

Rules under
the
Regulation.

In exercise of the powers conferred by the above Regulation, Government prescribed rules in 1911 for regulating the use of weights and measures of capacity in all parts of the State from and after the 1st of October 1912.

The standard weight, as prescribed in the rules, is—

(a) the "seer" weight which is a mass of metal equal to the weight of Rs. 24 (of 180 grains Troy each) of British Indian currency.

Arapavu	=	3 tolas	=	$\frac{1}{4}$ seer
Pavu	=	6 tolas	=	$\frac{1}{2}$ seer
Achecheru	=	12 tolas	=	$\frac{1}{2}$ seer
Pancheru	...		=	5 seers
Dhadiah	...		=	10 seers
Mana (Maund)	...		=	40 seers

(b) The Bengal seer is equal to 80 tolas. Bengal Maund=40 Bengal seers.

NOTE.—The Bengal seer and the Bengal maund are $80/24$ or $3\frac{1}{3}$ times the local seer and maund of weight.

(c) Pound (Avoirdupois).

14 lbs.	=	1 Stone
28 lbs.	=	1 Quarter
112 lbs.	=	1 Hundred-weight

20 Hundredweights or	
2,240 lbs.	= 1 Ton

NOTE.—One hundred and eight pounds=175 seers local or $52\frac{1}{2}$ seers Bengal.

The standard measure of capacity is the “Seer” measure which is a hollow bronze cylinder, capable, when filled to the brim, of holding just 108 tolas (of 180 grains Troy each) weight of distilled water at its maximum density and under the normal atmospheric pressure.

Chataku	= 1 seer	Balla	= 4 seers
Arapavu	= $\frac{1}{4}$ seer	Kolaga	= 8 seers
Pavu	= $\frac{1}{2}$ seer	Palla	= 100 seers
Achcheru	= $\frac{1}{2}$ seer	Khandi	= 20 kolagas or 160 seers.

Provision is made in the rules to stamp every weight (except where the small size of the weight renders it impracticable) and every measure capacity, after verification.

To facilitate conversion of units of measure into units of weight, the following equivalent may also be given :—

1 Palla of Paddy	=	115 lbs. of cleaned rice
„ of Ragi	=	220 lbs.
„ of Horse-gram	=	240 lbs.
„ of Cholum	=	232 lbs.
„ of Bengal-gram	=	230 lbs.
„ of Till	=	180 lbs.
„ of Wheat	=	225 lbs.

Uniform
Weights and
Measures
Scheme.

The Industries and Commerce Committee of the Economic Conference submitted to Government in 1916 a report containing the Committee's recommendations in regard to the weights and measures in use in the State and for improving them. The following important recommendations were made by it :—

(1) That a stamping party consisting of a clerk or tester and a gollar or artizan be entertained in each district at a cost of Rs. 22 per mensem and two additional parties at a cost of Rs. 35 per mensem each in the Cities of Bangalore and Mysore to work under the Deputy Commissioners or the President of the Municipal Councils concerned ;

(2) that each party be provided with a sufficient number of weights and measures for sale to the public and the price be fixed at a rate equivalent to the cost of production plus half an anna for each measure or weight to meet the establishment charges ;

(3) that arrangements be made to obtain the weights and measures required from private manufacturers according to approved samples and the idea of erecting a plant in the Central Jail for manufacturing the same be abandoned ;

(4) that the duty of getting approved patterns of weights and measures for distribution to the Deputy Commissioners and the Presidents of Municipalities of Bangalore and Mysore be entrusted to the Director of Industries and Commerce and a sum of Rs. 500 placed at the disposal of the Department for the manufacture of samples of weights and measures ; and

(5) that a sum of Rs. 16,000 be allotted for the purchase of 8,000 weights and an equivalent number of measures.

Government, in 1917, sanctioned the scheme of the Committee with a few modifications and directed :—

(1) that the Revenue Department should be primarily responsible for the enforcement of the rules ;

(2) that the control over the working of the whole system of introduction of uniform weights and measures should vest in the Revenue Commissioner ;

(3) that the Revenue Commissioner should arrange for the supply of weights and measures for all centres ;

(4) that standards of authorised weights and measures in general use should be supplied to all Revenue officers in Districts, all Police Stations and *patels* of important villages; and

(5) that a set of bronze weights and brass measures should be kept in every District Treasury for purposes of comparison with the working standards in the hands of the stamping parties.

Government also sanctioned a sum of Rs. 16,000 for stocking a sufficient supply of weights and measures. Finding that the above measures had not been fully brought into operation, Government, in 1918, transferred the entire control over measures to be adopted for ensuring an adequate supply of weights and measures and testing and stamping the same, to the Department of Industries and Commerce, the responsibility to enforce the rules continuing with the Revenue and Police Departments. In 1924, arrangements for the manufacture of seamless measures by machinery were completed and the first set of measures was got ready. A good supply of weights was also manufactured. Facilities are being provided in the State for an adequate supply of standard weights and measures. It will, however, be sometime before the time will be ripe for introducing legislation to render the use of uncertified weights and measures penal. The Mysore Premier Metal Factory has been entrusted with the manufacture and supply of the required number of sets of measures on certain conditions. The distribution of the new sets of measures is being arranged for through the help of the local bodies.

Steps have also been taken to arrange for a wide publication of the table of the authorised standards of weights and measures, their multiples and sub-multiples.

The standard of length is the Imperial standard yard :—

1/3rd of a yard = 1 foot.

1/36th of a yard = 1 inch.

To declare the Imperial standard yard to be the legal standard measure of length in the territories of Mysore, Government, in 1890, passed the “ Measures of Length Regulation ” (No. III of 1890) and by subsequent Notification, dated January 1894, approved and declared the measures of Imperial standard yard.

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CHAPTER X.

GLOSSARY OF JUDICIAL AND REVENUE TERMS.

(INCLUDING WORDS OCCURRING IN OFFICIAL
DOCUMENTS).

Ābād	Populous ; cultivated.
Ābkāri	Revenue derived from duties levied on the manufacture and sale of inebriating liquors, and on intoxicating drugs ; excise.
Achkat	The total area of land attached to a village. When applied to irrigation, it means the total extent of land capable of being irrigated by any particular irrigational work.
Acreage contribution	The contribution per acre of land to be paid to Government by all the holders of lands under tanks or other irrigational works, repaired, restored or constructed at Government cost.
Aday Bāki	Arrears of previous year.
Adavu	Mortgage with or without possession ; deposit.
Ādhāra	Security ; pledge ; recognizance ; bail ; an exhibit.
Adharrekḥ	Base line.
Adhikāra	Cognizance ; jurisdiction ; authority.
Agrahāra	A village held by Brāhmans on a favourable tenure.
Ahavāl	(i) Prayer or representation of a petitioner. (ii) A statistical annual return, giving exhaustive particulars regarding the agricultural resources of a taluk, such as number of villages, sources of irrigation, number of men, cattle and ploughs, etc.
Ain Jama	Actual receipts or credits.
Aivaj	Amount of money.
Ajamāyishi	Test or verification ; experiment ; inspection.
Ajamāyishi Tarikh	On probation ; as an experimental or tentative measure.
Ākāra	Assessment of a land ; area (of a field).
Ākārband	A register showing the area, rate of assessment, etc., in detail of the survey numbers of a village.
Alāhida	Separate.

Alavi	Progressive rental for improvement of land, or rent commencing at a low rate and increasing gradually year by year till the maximum limit is attained. (Caval and Shrāya are other terms used in the same sense).
Amal	Proceedings; action; business; operation.
Amaljāri	Execution, particularly of a decree.
Amānat, Anamat	Deposit.
Āmad	Imports; receipts.
Amildār, Amil	A collector of revenue in charge of a taluk.
Amāni	(i) Lands or other sources of revenue under the direct management of Government officials, as opposed to those rented out. (ii) Anything held in trust, or under official management.
Amānikere	Tank other than the village tank; independent tank.
Amīn	A bailiff in the Judicial Department.
Amma	A Goddess; especially the Goddess of Small-pox.
Amarāi	Minor tree produce of a village belonging to Government, such as tamarind, honge, soap-nut, etc., entered under the head "Amarāi."
Amrut Mahal	A department for improving the breed of cattle for Government purposes.
Anche	Post.
Anchechīla, Anche Bastu	The leather wallet containing letters and papers carried by the postal runners.
Anche Kachēri	Post Office.
Anche Mane, Ancheyavara	Postal runners' hut.
Gudisalu.	
Ancheyava	Postal runner.
Andāz, Andāj	An estimate.
Angadi	A shop.
Angadi Terige	Tax on shops.
Anna Chatra, Anna Satra	A building for the accommodation of travellers where food is also supplied.
Ane, Anekat (Anicut)	A masonry or brick dam across a river or stream for the purpose of raising the water and distributing it by side channels to the land on each side that would otherwise not benefit by the overflow; also a steep foot path.
Anūrādha	An asterism; a rain commencing between 17th and 29th November; paddy is sown at this time.
Anubhavam or Anubhōgam	Enjoyment or usufruct. (Also a deed of gift of land as a reward for services performed, answering, perhaps, to Inām land). It was customary for princes, when conferring a title on any person, to grant him at the same time sufficient land to enable him to maintain
(Sanskrit).			

			the dignity of his position. The tenant could not be ejected except where there were conditions imposed and he failed to fulfil them.
Anwādidār	A re-mortgagee; the mortgagee who holds the property from the proprietor being called Bhōgyadar.
Āramba	Cultivation; farming.
Archaka	The officiating priest of a temple.
Ardhamānya	Land granted on a light quit-rent; generally half rent, as its name implies.
Ardhamānyadār	A man who holds as a <i>mānyam</i> , lands assessed at half the usual rates.
Āridra	An asterism; a rain commencing between 19th June and 2nd July. Paddy, cotton, etc., are sown at this season.
Arzi, Arji, Urzee	A petition addressed by an inferior to a superior; <i>vice versa</i> , it would be a <i>takīd</i> ; among equals, it would be a <i>yādast</i> , an address; a memorial; an application; a report submitted by an inferior officer to a superior officer.
Asal	Principal; original stock.
Āsāmi	An individual.
Āshūr Khāna	An open building reserved by Muhammadans for the exhibition of the PANJA during the Muharram; at other times it affords shelter to poor Muhammadan travellers.
Āslēsha	An asterism; a rain commencing between 31st July and 13th August. Gram and mangoes are sown at this time.
Āsti	Property; riches; real or personal goods.
Āsvini	An asterism; A rain commencing between the 11th and 23rd April. Land is tilled at this season.
Aval (Adj. Hindustani)	Superior quality.
Āval number	Used in connection with old Inām accounts; it means an account showing the boundaries of lands.
Ayakat	The total area of land attached to a village; when applied to irrigation, it means the total extent of land capable of being watered by any particular work.
Ayya, Ayyanavaru	A Lingāyat priest and teacher.
Bāb	An item; head of accounts.
Baddi	Interest.
Badli	A substitute acting for an absentee on leave.
Bādige	Rent.
Badti	Increase, especially of pay.
Bāgāyat	Garden lands, the assessment on which is levied according to the number of trees; the rate varying according to the fertility of the soil.
Bahal	Reinstatement.

Bāki	Balance or arrears to be paid; <i>Aday Baki</i> : Arrears of previous year.
Bakshi	Head of an office.
Balagai	Holeyas of the right hand caste in Mysore and other Kannada countries.
Bandi, Bandy	A cart or conveyance.
Bandhi Khana	A jail or lock-up.
Bhandāra	A store room or treasury.
Bhandāra, Sarasvati	A library.
Bānd, Bāndu	An earthen embankment used as a survey mark.
Bāndinavaru	Officials of the Revenue Survey and Settlement Departments.
Banjar	Waste land. KABULIYAT BANJAR: The land which its occupant has, at his own option, allowed to lie waste.
Baodi, Baoli	A well.
Bar	Mysore Infantry.
Bārābalōti	Village officials, consisting of 12 persons, <i>viz.</i> , Gauda, Shānbhōg, Panchāngi, Talvār, Tōti, Nirgānti, Agasa, Nāyinda, Kumbāra, Lohar, Badagi and Agasale: "The village twelve who formed the ancient village service."
Barāvārd	Pay abstract.
Bartaraf	Dismissal.
Bārigāt	Body-guard.
Bārika	A menial among the village servants; a deputy talāri, who is employed to watch the crops, from the growing crop to the granary.
Basti	A populous town; a Jain temple.
Bastu	A bundle of records or papers.
Batai, Batāyi	(i) Division of the crop between the cultivator and the landlord, or the Government in that capacity. Under this system which prevailed in Mysore prior to the Commission period, the assessment was paid to Government in the shape of grain. (ii) Equal division of the crops between the husbandmen and Government.
Batavād	Disbursement; payment; distribution.
Bazār	A market.
Bēdaru	Hunters; poachers.
Bē-Chirākḥ	Without lamp; deserted. Applied to an uninhabited village.
Beddalu	Dry land.
Benāmi	Without name, fictitious, as a purchaser under a false name.
Bēpār	Trade.
Bēpāri	A merchant or trader.
Bēriz	The full revenue obtainable; the amount of revenue of a village.
Bēsāya	Cultivation.
Bēsige Kāla	Hot weather; dry season.

Besta		A fisherman; palanquin bearer.
Betta		A hill. A Jain place of worship at the summit of a hill, consisting of an unroofed enclosure surrounding a colossal image.
Bē-Vārasu	...	A term generally applied to property left by persons without heirs; unclaimed.
Bhāga	...	Partition; share.
Bhang, Bhangi	...	Hemp used in making an intoxicating and stupefying preparation which is smoked like tobacco.
Bhāra Mārga	...	Transit duty.
Bharani	...	A rain commencing between 27th April and 2nd May. Various kinds of grain are sown at this season.
Bharti	Export.
Bhatamānya	or (Brahma dāya).	Rent-free land granted to Brāhmans; grants and endowments of land held by Brāhmans for their support. They are personal grants as distinguished from those held on condition of rendering service.
Bhatamānyadāra	...	A Brāhman holding rent-free lands.
Bhata Vritti	...	A small portion of rent-free land granted to Brāhmans.
Bhatta (Batta)	...	Extra pay or allowances to public servants; an allowance to temporary peons, serving summonses and other processes of courts; travelling allowance; paddy.
Bhatti		A still.
Bhatti Sunka		Still-head duty.
Bhāvi		A well.
Bhēti		An interview; visit.
Bhōgya		Mortgage with possession.
Bhūmi		Land, generally applied to culturable land.
Bidi		A street.
Bidige		Second day of the bright or dark half of a lunar month.
Bījavari		Extent of land; the amount of seed required for a portion of a field; area of land calculated according to the quantity of seed required for sowing in it.
Billeyava	...	A peon or man wearing a belt.
Bīlu (Bīdu)	...	Waste, uncultivated land.
Birādāri	...	A troop of Silhadars in the Mysore Horse, consisting generally of 12 men.
Bitti, Bēgāri	...	Gratuitous labour exacted from raiyats on account of Government.
Bōgyadār, Bhōgyadār		A mortgagee who holds the property from the proprietor.
Bombe	...	An image, idol, doll.
Boond	...	Coffee.
Bōyi	...	A palanquin-bearer.
Brahmadāya	...	Rent-free land granted to Brāhmans. See <i>Bhatamānya</i> .

Brinjari	A tribe resembling gipsies, who wander about and earn a livelihood as carriers of grain, etc.
Buddhivanta	Wise man, the elder or PRUD'HOMME of a village or community.
Bund	The embankment forming tank or reservoir.
Canteroy Pagoda (Kanthiraya Varāha).			An unminted coin named after Kanthirava Narasa Rāja (1638-1659) worth 10 gold <i>fanams</i> .
Cārcoon (also Kārkūn)	..		A clerk or manager, who sets down the transactions of the assessments of lands, etc.
Chadsāl	Year in which a maximum amount of revenue was derived.
Chākara	A menial among the village servants; a deputy <i>talāri</i> , who is employed to watch the crops, from the growing crop to the granary.
Chākari			Appointment.
Chakbandi			Boundaries.
Chalan			A memorandum distinctly specifying the nature of the payment into a Treasury and the person or officer on whose account it is made.
Chalavadi			A low caste. The servant of a <i>Lingāyat</i> merchant carrying a large ladle with chain and bell on his shoulders. Menial servant under the head merchant of a town.
Chambar			Currier and shoe-maker.
Chapāvane			Concealment, generally applied to unauthorized cultivation by a raiyat.
Chatra, Chhatra			An inn; a resting place for travellers.
Chaubino			Beams.
Chaukāsi			To lessen the price; to haggle.
Chauk, Chowk			A place where four roads meet; a square.
Chauthāi			A fourth part.
Chāvadi			A small public office; a police station.
Chēla			A Hindu boy seized in early life and forcibly made a Muhammadan by order of Tipu; these boys as they grew up were incorporated in a military corps, retaining the name of Chēlas.
Chengūli			Day labourer.
Chhāpā Kāgada			Stamp paper.
Chilre			Small coin; change. Petty; trifling; Sundry.
Chillar Bāb			Miscellaneous items.
Chitta			A rain commencing between 8th and 20th September. Millet and gingelli oil-seeds are sown at this time.
Chitte Siddhārti			Old measurement papers of the Hindu year <i>Siddhārthi</i> , corresponding to (1799-1800).
Chitte, Chitta			Accounts; old measurement papers.
Choon Kud			Soil containing minute fragments or nodules of limestone.
Chōri			Theft.
Chōri māl			Stolen property.
Chōr Inām			Land enjoyed free of rent by stealth or unauthorizedly.

Chōr mānya Ināms	...	Ināms of a fraudulent origin.
Choul Bhūmi	...	Salt or saline efflorescence.
Chout, Chaut	...	A fourth part; the tribute or contribution formerly levied by the Mahrattas.
Chowthāyi	...	See <i>Chauthai</i> .
Chowthāyi Remission	...	Remission of one-fourth assessment of wet lands.
Chowthāyi Tanks	...	Tanks the holders of lands under which are entitled to remission of the wet assessment.
Chūki	...	A mistake or error.
Chungadi	...	Interest.
Cowl	...	Agreement; engagement.
Dacoit	...	A robber, especially one of a gang of house-breakers who plunder with the aid of torches.
Dacoity	...	A torch robbery.
Dafedār (also Duffedār)	..	Head peon having charge of ten or more persons.
Daftar (also Duftar)	..	Records; the place where records are kept.
Daftar Ilākha	...	A department in which accounts connected with the revenue are kept.
Daga	...	Deceit; fraud.
Dākhale	...	Reference; authority.
Dākhāl	...	Admission.
Dākhale Grāma	...	A subordinate village included in a large one, which is called "ASALI."
Dalavāyi (Dulwōy)	...	The hereditary commander of the forces.
Dalāyita, Dalāyat	...	A peon.
Dallāli	...	A broker.
Dāmāshayi (also Dāmāsha)	...	A proportionate share.
Dāna	...	Cattle.
Dāna, Dāna sāsana	...	A gift, a deed of gift.
Danda	...	Fine.
Dandu	...	An army; a cantonment.
Darbār (also Durbār)	...	A court; a royal court; an audience or LEVEE.
Darkhāst	...	An application to rent land; a tender; a petition.
Darōde	...	Robbery.
Darōgha, Darōga	...	A native officer; superintendent; or manager.
Daryafti	...	An inquiry; trial.
Dasavanda	...	Land granted to a person for repairing or building a tank, on condition of paying in money or kind one-tenth or some small share of the produce.
Dast-Aivaz	...	A voucher; a written document.
Dastūri	...	According to custom; a customary allowance or perquisite.
Daul	...	Estimate; valuation.
Dāyādi	...	Cousin; a distant relation from the same male stock.
Deha-Jhāda, Dahazada	...	Census; an account showing the number of houses, shops, cattle, population, looms,

		ploughs, etc., of which a town or village consists.
Dēshi	...	Indigenous.
Dēvadāya (or Dharmadāya)		Lands endowed rent free for temples; grant made for the support of religious and charitable institutions and of persons rendering service therein.
Dēvasthāna	...	A temple.
Dhani	...	A master.
Dhanishta	...	A rain commencing between 3rd to 15th February.
Dhārane	...	Market rate, price, value.
Dharmakarta	...	Temple-warden.
Dhārsod	...	System of giving and taking equally in order to ensure a straight boundary.
Dhārswār	...	A variety of cotton (<i>Gossypium sp.</i>).
Dhore	...	Master; king.
Dhruva Pairu	...	Standing crops; trees grown in garden lands.
Dhruva Phala	...	Staple crop produce.
Divān (Dewan)	...	Minister of finance; chief administrative head of the State.
Doddi	...	A pound for cattle.
Dōli (Dhooly)	...	A litter like a palanquin.
Domba	...	A tumbler or juggler.
Dōni	...	A boat; especially one hollowed out of a log.
Doopun	...	Liable to be washed away by running water.
Drishyādhāra	...	Mortgage without possession.
Durga (Droog)	...	A hill-fort.
Duddu	...	An obsolete copper coin, three of which went to an anna.
Du-Fasal	...	Raising two crops a year on the same land.
Durast	...	Repair.
Edagai or Edagai Kula		A left-hand caste.
Ēkabhōgya	...	Undivided possession held by only one.
Ēka Sāl	...	One year.
Ekkalu Gadde	...	Alluvial soil.
Ere Bhūmi	...	Black soil.
Ēri	...	Bund of a tank.
Ēru	...	A plough, or plough-and-oxen.
Ēru Kānike	...	Plough-tax.
Faisal	...	Decision; judgment; disposal.
Fakir	...	Muhammadan mendicant.
Fanam (Hana)	...	A small coin of either gold or silver, worth 14 duddu—4 annas 8 pies. Till 1818, in Madras, 42 fanams went to one star pagoda; a fanam would thus be worth about 2d.
Fasal		Crop or produce.
Fasli		Revenue year.
Ferisht		A list or table of contents of a file of correspondence; a catalogue; an inventory.

Firka	Sub-division of a hobli; the charge of one shanbhog, consisting of one or more villages.
Gadde ...	A paddy-field; an irrigated field.
Gādi ...	A cart or conveyance.
Gāmagane Lekhkha	The revenue account of a district containing several villages.
Gām Thān ...	Village site.
Gāna ...	An oil-mill.
Gāna Terige ...	A tax on oil-mills.
Gandha ...	Sandal.
Gāniga ...	The owner of an oil-mill.
Gauna ...	Sugar-cane.
Gauda ...	The headman of a village; the head of village police.
Gaum (from Sanskrit Grāma).	Village.
Gāvada, Gau ...	A distance of about 12 miles.
Gēni Chit or Cheeti	Lease deed.
Ghalige ...	A Hindu hour—24 English minutes.
Ghaut ...	(i) A landing place. (ii) A path of descent to a river. (iii) A path of descent from a mountain; a mountain pass.
Gida Gāvalu	A forest watchman.
Gida Patrike (also called Jhār Patrik.)	Tree statement. This is one of the most important Survey Settlement Accounts. It contains a description of trees, standing on the lands of a village, with remarks as to whom they belong.
Girāki	Demand; saleable.
Girivi	A mortgage.
Go-Bhūmi	Land set apart for grazing; pasture land.
Gochu	Soil containing large nodules of limestone.
Golla	A milkman. A subordinate official employed in the treasury in carrying money-bags, etc.; assistant to the shroff. Originally he kept the key of the Treasury.
Gōmāla	Land set apart for grazing; pasture land.
Gōni	Gunney; a coarse cloth made of hemp.
Goravi Kōlu	A fire-stick used instead of a torch.
Gōsāyi	A sect who never marry, and whose profession is traffic, the profits of which go to a chief guru called <i>Mahant</i> .
Gōshwāra	An abstract; a RESUME.
Gowda	The headman or Patel of a village.
Grāma Terige	Village cess; a fine levied on the raiyats who have left their own villages and settled in others.
Gudāra	A tent.
Gudasta	Immediately preceding.
Gudli	An implement with a short handle fixed at right angles, used for digging instead of a spade.

Gumāsta	. An accountant; an agent; a steward; a representative; a confidential factor; a clerk. Also a substitute or Officiator as, in Shanbhog Gumāsta.
Gunjayishi	. Out-bidding another.
Gunta, Goonta	. Land measure—121 square yards or (i) 1-10th of an acre. (ii) A well or pond.
Gūr	. Molasses.
Gutigedār	. Contractor.
Gutta	. Lease amount.
Gutta, Goota	. A rock, or rocky hill.
Habba	. A feast; festival.
Hādi	. A road.
Hadlu	Grass land covered with water; a waste rice-field.
Hadnāma	Boundary.
Hādyā	Land covered with low brushwood and small trees from which fire-wood, leaves, etc., for manuring the fields are taken.
Hāga	One-fourth of a fanam.
Hagēvu	A subterraneous granary.
Hak, Hakku	A right.
Halāku	Disorder.
Halāt	The excise duty levied on areca-nut, cardamom, pepper and tobacco, on removal from the place of their production. Export duty levied on coffee.
Hāli	At present.
Hale Paika	Toddy drawers in the Nagar country.
Halige mara	A plank used in levelling the fields after seed is sown.
Hamsaya	The rate of assessment paid in neighbouring lands taken as the standard in assessing lands newly cultivated.
Hana	Money; a fanam.
Hangāmi	Temporary.
Hankalu	A reaped field.
Haradāri	A league—3 miles; a measure of extent containing 2,000 fathoms, or about 2 miles and a half; a kos.
Harkār	Guide; personal attendant.
Harkat	Obstacle; obstruction.
Harāz	Auction.
Hāsal	Postage; tax.
Hasta	A rain commencing 24th September and 7th October; millet and gingelli oil-seeds are sown at this time.
Hastantra ...	Cash balance.
Hatlagavadu Tank	Tank constructed at one's own cost.
Havildār ...	A Sergeant.
Havēli, Sarkar Havēli	A large house for the accommodation of Government servants.

Heggade	.	Headman of a village; the headman of village police; in some parts of the province, rent-free lands are assigned for their support.
Henda	.	The juice of the date-palm; toddy; which ferments and becomes intoxicating.
Hikkalu	.	An outlet for water to drain from one garden to another.
Hingāru, Hingāri	.	The latter rains, from July to November; the north-east monsoon.
Hisse	.	Share; partition.
Hissedār	.	Sharer.
Hittalu	.	Backyards attached to buildings.
Höbli, Höbali	.	The sub-division of a taluk, comprising several villages.
Höblidār	.	A commandant of a Höbli of peons.
Hola	..	A field.
Hole	..	A stream; river.
Honnu	..	Half an Ikkeri pagoda (gold), value Rs. 2-4-0.
Hukum	..	A written order from a superior; ordinary order.
Hulasu	..	Looking well, generally, applied to crops; thrifty.
Hulbauni	..	Pasturage of unoccupied Government lands. Statement showing the grazing purchased by each individual. The term is also applied to the Government income, realized from the sale of grass or fees recovered from the raiyats for allowing their cattle to graze on such lands.
Hulgāval, Hulbigāval, Hulgāval.		Pasture land.
Hulgāval Sunka	Grazing dues.
Hundi, Hoondee	A bill of exchange.
Huzūr, Hoozoor	The presence. The chief officer of the district; higher or supreme authority, a term of respect.
Huttuvali		The produce of a garden or field, or of any trade; the amount of an assessment, rent, income or revenue.
Ijāfe		Increase, especially of pay.
Ijāra, Ijāre		Contract or lease, generally applied to the forming of revenue in olden days.
Ijārdar, Izārdar		A contractor; a farmer of liquor shops.
Ilākhe		A department.
Inām		A gift from a superior to an inferior holder; a grant of land for religious or charitable purpose, made by Government, sometimes free, and sometimes with light quit-rent or jodi. Inām is same as <i>Mānyam</i> . Technically, a major inām is a whole village or more than one village; and a minor Inām is something less than a village. In most cases, minor Ināms are merely blocks of lands. (See <i>Mysore Revenue Manual</i> , Chapter XVI).

Ināmdār The holder of a rent-free grant.
Inām Kasar Excess in Ināms.
Irawāra The total produce before division under the RATYI system.
Irsāl Patti List of remittance of cash sent to the treasury; an invoice.
Isam Individual; an item; a head of charge.
Isamwār Individually.
Istihār A notification; proclamation.
Isvi The Christian era, year.
Jādamāli, Jhādmāli		. A sweeper employed in cleaning office rooms.
Jadthi Search or examination of an account.
Jafti Attachment of property, confiscation.
Jāgir An estate, held free of payment to Government in the shape of land revenue; rent-free lands or villages granted for services rendered to Government.
Jāgirdar		. Holder of lands or villages free of assessment, generally as a reward for meritorious service.
Jāhir Nāma		. A notice or summons.
Jamābandi		. The annual settlement made under the raiyat- war system. DITAM JAMABANDI is the pre- liminary Jamābandi conducted by the taluk officer. Huzār Jamābandi is the final settlement made by the Divisional Assistant Commissioner or Deputy Commissioner.
Jamadār		A Commandant of a Hōbli; a Commissioned Officer in the Mysore Horse.
Jama Kharch		Receipts and expenditure.
Jāmīn		Land.
Jāmīn		Bail; security.
Jamīndār		A landholder.
Jāmīndār		A surety.
Jangama		A Lingāyat priest.
Janti Kallu		A boundary or demarcation mark, composed of three stones in a line.
Jantri		Tables used for calculation.
Jāri		Current; in force.
Jāri Inām		A grant of land or other endowment still in force, and not resumed.
Jarīb		Measurement.
Jāri Ināmti		Rent-free land.
Jarūr		Urgent.
Jatka		A small, close, two-wheeled conveyance drawn by a pony.
Jātre		Annual fair, usually occurring on the occasion of a festival.
Jauli		A term applied to cloths of all kinds; piece- goods.
Javāno, Javāna		A peon; an inferior officer who acts as a guard and a messenger.
Javāb		An answer.

Javābdāri	Responsibility.
Jēshṭha	Third lunar month corresponding to June and July. A rain commencing between 30th November and 12th December. Paddy is sown during this time.
Jhāde	An account showing the number of houses, shops, cattle, population, looms, ploughs, etc., of which a town or village consists. Final settlement. Hence SĀL JHĀDE means accounts of annual income and expenditure.
Jhadṭi	Examination of an account.
Jhār Patrak	Statement showing the number and description of trees in each survey number. (See Gida Patrike).
Jiddu	Jealousy; anger.
Jindagi	Property; estate.
Jirāyiti	Cultivation of an untilled land; farming; cultivation.
Jitagāra	A hereditary labourer or slave.
Jōdi	Favourable rent or light assessment, the proportion of which to the full rates varies; Quit-rent; grant of land or village on lighter assessment than the proper revenue.
Jōdidār ...	A person holding an Inām village on Jōdi or quit-rent.
Jōdidār Takhta ...	A record of the settlement of the amount of Jōdi to be paid upon each wattan or varttane.
Jōgi ...	A class of religious mendicants.
Jōti (Banna) Phana	An oil manufacturer of the Lingāyat caste.
Jōyisa ...	An astrologer.
Junārdār ...	An inferior official performing the duties of a vernacular clerk.
Jurmāne ...	A fine.
Javāb ...	An answer.
Kabūlati ...	(i) An account showing the decrease of revenue on account of lands given up by the holders, the increase by new application for lands, the estimated value of <i>batāyi</i> cultivation. The account is to be sent by the Amildar once in 10 or 12 days commencing from April till the end of July. (ii) An agreement or engagement in writing.
Kabūliyat Banjar ...	Waste land left by the occupant.
Kachēri (Cutcherry)	An office; a court.
Kachha Kharadu ...	A rough account.
Kada ...	Debt.
Kadame ...	A deficiency.
Kadangu ...	A trench or ditch in garden.
Kadata (Kuduttum)	A cloth covered with a composition of charcoal and gum, and used instead of a slate for writing and keeping accounts on.
Kadagi	A basket or pannier put on pack bullock.

Kaifiyat		A deposition.
Kai Kāgāda		A recognizance.
Kalasi		A lascar; a subordinate who pitches and takes care of tents.
Kalave		A channel or stream, generally for irrigation.
Kalla		A thief.
Kālu		A fourth part of anything.
Kāmāti		Day labourer.
Kambli (Cumbly)		A coarse woollen blanket or camblet, used by all classes for protection against wet and cold, and for sleeping in at night.
Kambli Kuruba	...	A class of Kurubas.
Kammi Jāsti Patti	...	Statement showing increase and decrease.
Kamshara	...	Reduction to a lower grade.
Kandāya, Kandāyam	...	Land-tax; money assessment.
Kandāchār (spelt also Candā char).		An ancient establishment of peons under the direction of a separate department which partook both of Civil and Military functions, in its relation to the Police Office and the Army. These men trained from their infancy, according to their measure of discipline, to Military exercises, were most of them also cultivators of the soil (<i>Vide</i> Selections from the Records of the Chief Commissioner's Office). Capacity ceased, and with the exception of their employment as the legal advisers of the Courts in cases of Muhammadan law, the duties of those stationed in the cities or districts were confined to the preparation and attestation of deeds of conveyance and other legal instruments, and the general superintendence and legislation of the ceremonies of marriage, funerals, and other domestic occurrences among the Muhammadans. (H. H. Wilson's <i>Glossary</i>).
Kāyamgutta Tenure		"That term, in its literal sense, describes a permanent village settlement; and it probably owes its origin to a time when many villages were depopulated and when the Government found it advantageous to rent out such on a fixed but very moderate lease, the renter undertaking to restore them to their former prosperous condition. The Kāyamgutta lands comprise some of the most valuable ināmi lands in the Province." (<i>Vide Mysore Gazetteer</i> , 1897 edition, Volume 1, page 690).
Kere	..	A tank.
Kēri	..	A small street with houses on both sides; a hamlet.
Khaidi	..	A prisoner.
Khaidu	...	Imprisonment.
Khajāne, Khazāna		Treasury.

Khalasi	Assessment on the excess portion of an inām.
Khanēshumārī	Census. An account showing the number of houses, shops, cattle, population, looms, ploughs, etc., of which a town or village consists.
Kharchu	Expense.
Kharāb	Land unfit for cultivation.
Kharīta	The envelope of a letter, especially the ornamental or silk covering of a letter addressed to, or by, a person of rank; hence the letter itself, particularly one passing between an Indian Prince and the Governor-General.
Khāta	Ledger of receipts and disbursements. It consists of firstly the Government account in which the amounts for recovery under the heads of (i) Land Revenue, (ii) Local Funds, (iii) Takavi, (iv) Amaraī, (v) Pasture, etc., are credited and remittances from the village to the Taluk Treasury of cash recovered are debited; and secondly of raiyats' accounts in which each raiyat is debited with his liabilities and collections of revenue are credited whenever they take place.
Kandi, Khandaga (Candy).	Land measure—20 kudus or 10,000 square yards for wet and garden land; and 20 kudus or 64,000 square yards for dry land. Grain measure—120 kudus or 4 bushels—12·8 pts.
Kanikapille (Conicopilay)	An overseer.
Kantu ...	Stipulation of payment; instalment.
Kapile ...	An apparatus for raising water from a well or tank for irrigating fields, worked by men or by oxen on an inclined plane.
Kans	(i) A species of grass destructive to cultivation. (ii) Extensive tracts of green forests which are preserved for the sake of the wild pepper vines, bag and palms, gum trees, etc. The holders of these Kans are allowed the privilege of (a) enjoying the said produce, (b) clearing and making use of the undergrowth; and (c) clipping trees for the growth of pepper-tree and for purposes of manure.
Karagupadi	Duty on goods where they are consumed or sold in contradistinction to STHAL BHARTI, which is levied at the place of production; sale.
Kāranji ..	A reservoir or fountain.
Karāru ..	An agreement.
Kārkhāne ..	A manufactory; a workshop.
Karnam (Curnum)	Village accountant.
Kārtika Fasal ..	November paddy crop. That for April and May is VAISAKHA FASAL.
Kāru ..	The wet season.
Kasba, Kasaba ..	The chief town of a district or division.

Kāsu	A pie-piece.
Kasuri	Neglect; fault.
Kattadaka	A written agreement.
Katte	Ancient or dam in a river or stream; a pond; a custom house or place where sayar duties on certain articles were being levied.
Kattu	Court papers or proceedings.
Kattu Kālve	Feeding channel to a tank.
Kauldār	A raiyat holding lands on special agreement.
Kāval	Ground reserved for pasturing cattle.
Kāzi	A Muhammadan Judge, an officer formerly appointed by the Government to administer both Civil and Criminal law, chiefly in towns; according to the principles of the <i>Korān</i> , under the British authorities, the judicial functions of the Kāzis in that capacity.
Khāte	A holding or occupancy.
Khātedār	Occupant of Government land.
Khāyam	Fixed; permanent.
Khāyamguttadār	Holder of land or a village on a fixed and unalterable assessment.
Khāyamguttige	Fixed assessment or rent.
Khūtwār	Register of lands. This register is the foundation of all revenue accounts.
Khush Bash	A private person of independent means.
Khūn	Murder.
Khurd-Bard	Embezzlement of public money.
Killēdār	A Police Inspector; a commandant of a fort.
Kistu, Kist, Khist	An instalment of the annual assessment paid by holders at stated times.
Kistu Bandi	A document given to a landholder showing the instalments payable by him.
Kodāgidār	A holder of land under tank, free of or on nominal assessment for having repaired or restored it, and on the further condition of his keeping in good order the said irrigation work on which the land below depends for its supply of water.
Kodigi Ināms	Lands granted free of tax, or on a light assessment, in consideration of services rendered in the construction or restoration of tanks, on condition of their being maintained in good repair. But as the repair of such tanks was almost universally neglected by the Ināmdārs, they have been relieved of the duty, and rules have been framed for enfranchisement of ināms, the quit-rent credited to the irrigation fund for up-keep of the tanks.
Kōdi	The weir of a tank or reservoir.
Kola	A reservoir with stone steps down to the water's edge.
Kōla	The stocks; KAI KōLA, hand-stocks; KĀLU KōLA, leg-stocks.

Kolaga	...	One-twentieth of a khandaga.
Kōlkār, Kōlukāra	...	A mace-bearer; a peon.
Kole Rōga	...	A rot or disease which attacks areca palms.
Kōlāta	...	A stick-dance, or dance accompanied with striking of sticks; practised at the Dasara in olden days by school boys who, accompanied by their masters, went about the streets reciting Mahānavami songs and receiving presents.
Kolli		A stream or rivulet.
Kōlu		A pale; a rod.
Konga		A class of servants of Tamil origin.
Koppalu		The suburbs or outlying villages of a town.
Korama		A wild race inhabiting the forests and mountains.
Kottige		An out-house or shed, generally for cattle.
Kotvāl (Cutwāl)		An official whose principal duty is to furnish supplies to travellers.
Krayadār		Purchaser.
Kūdu		Land measure—16 PADIS OR PAILIS or 500 square yards for wet and garden land, and 16 PADIS OR PAILIS or 3,200 square yards for dry land.
		Grain measure—8 seers or 13'44 pints.
Kula		A single farmer; a tenant; holder of a land; a raiyat.
Kula Nashta		Loss of a tenant.
Kulavādi		A menial among the village servants; a deputy talāri, who is employed to watch the crops, from the growing crop to the granary.
Kulavār, Kulavāru		A term applied to accounts and returns made out with reference to the cultivators, as distinguished from accounts prepared according to the holdings.
Kulavār-Chitte, Kulavār-Patti.		A detailed account of the land cultivated by each holder.
Kulavār-Jamābandi	..	Individual settlement.
Kumri	...	A term, applied to cultivation carried on by felling a tract of forest, burning the wood, and raising a crop of grain on the clearing, which is abandoned in the following year, and a fresh clearing made somewhere else. This practice is now prohibited. A system of cultivation almost peculiar to certain <i>Malnad</i> hill tribes. A process consisting of burning away the jungly tracts and sowing castor oil seeds, ragi and other dry grains on the ground thus cleared up.
Kurige		A sowing machine and plough combined.
Kurkul (Kuralu)		Clayey soil, which when dry turns very hard, which does not easily absorb water, and which if once wetted does not dry soon. It is sometimes so bad that even grass will not grow on it.

Kusaki Khushi	A term applied to unirrigated land.
Kushki (Khushki) Sāguvali			Dry cultivation.
Kutchā	Mud built.
Lakkōte	An envelope; a sealed letter.
Lāl-Bāgh	A pleasure garden.
Lambāui	A tribe resembling gipsies, who wander about and earn a livelihood as carriers, sometimes called Brinjaries.
Luskar			A tent pitcher. In the Military Department the word is used to denote an inferior class of military men.
Lashkar	...		A Cantonment.
Lavājame	...		Establishment of a department drawing pay.
Lavāni Faisal Patrak			Record of the final settlement of each Survey number in the village.
Lekkha	...		Accounts; an account.
Lēvā Dēvi	...		Dealings, generally in money.
Lūti	...		Plunder.
Māf	...		Pardon, remission.
Māfi Rahadāri	...		Passport granted for the conveyance of goods from one place to another for which duty had already been paid.
Māgani			Sub-division of a taluk, corresponding to a hōbli or nād.
Magga			A weaver's loom.
Māgha			An asterism. A rain commencing between 14th and 27th August. Tobacco and wheat are sown at this time.
Mahānavami			A feast observed on the 9th day of the 7th lunar month, the last day but one of the Dasara, on which arms are worshipped.
Mahasūlu			Octroi; toll; crop.
Mahazar			Award of a panchayat, or jury; a statement made by a number of respectable persons regarding certain facts or events.
Maidān			A plain; the plain country, or BAIL SIMÉ, as distinguished from the MALNĀD or hill region.
Majakūru	The said, aforesaid, contents.
Malē	Rain.
Malē Kāla, Malē Gāla	Rainy season.
Mālīka	Owner.
Malki	Value of trees contained in an agricultural land.
Malnād, Malenād	Hill country; the western part of Mysore.
Māmaledār	A Collector of Revenue in charge of a taluk; an Amildār.
Māmūl, Māmūli (Māmool)			Established; customary; usual; ancient precedents; longstanding.
Mana	A maund.
Mande	Sub-divisions of a hōbli in Manjarābād, corresponding to a FIRKA or PHUT MĀGANI.

Manegār, Manegāra	(i) An agent, an accountant; (ii) an overseer; one who regulates the distribution of water from a tank or other reservoir.
Mane Terige	House-tax.
Mantapa	A place built for worship in front of a temple or on the bank of a river, or, by the side of a well; also a place in which an idol is deposited.
Mānyam	Privileged land exempt from taxes or imposts; a grant.
Markum	Dated.
Maru Kukke	A small basket or muzzle put on bullocks to prevent them from feeding.
Masalat	Counsel; plot.
Mashālchi	A torch-bearer or lamp-lighter.
Mashal Chōri	Torch robbery.
Matha (Mutt)	House of a priest; a school-house.
Matha Vritti	Land granted rent-free to a mutt.
Maund	A weight equal to 40 seers or 24 lbs.
Mēlādhikāri	Superior officer.
Mēstri (Maistry)	A subordinate employed in supervising a work; an overseer; a chief builder, carpenter, etc.
Minahu	Till; until.
Mirāsi (or Meeras)	(i) An allowance or perquisite, sometimes paid in money and sometimes in kind; generally applied to grain, etc., given to village officials or headmen of the raiyats. (ii) In Madras, this word is used to denote the hereditary right of cultivation or the right of tenant and his heirs, to occupy a certain ground, so long as they continue to pay a customary rent of the districts.
Mobalagu	Amount of money.
Mōchi	A class of cobblers who make saddles, native slippers, etc.
Mohur, Mohar	A seal; stamp.
Mohatarfa	Originally taxes levied on looms, houses, oil-mills, shops, etc. Taxes not included in land-tax or assessments.
Mokhtiyār-Nāma	Power of attorney.
Mokhtesar	Head of a department.
Mrigasira	An asterism; A rain commencing between 5th and 18th June. Paddy, cotton, etc., are sown at this season.
Muchchalike	A deed of agreement.
Muchchi	A man employed in public offices to make ink, mend pens, provide papers, seal letters, bind books, and the like.
Mufat, Muft, Māfi..	Free from payment; gratis.
Mūkuppe	A mode of cultivation by which a crop is divided into three parts, of which one is for the rent of the ground, another for labour, and the third for the seed and implements.

Mūla	...	An asterism; A rain commencing between the 12th and 25th December. Cummin, coriander, tobacco and other seeds are sown at this time.
Mulki	..	Pertaining to revenue.
Mungāri, Mungāru		The early rains, from April to June. The former or early season for cultivation. The south-west monsoon.
Munshi (Moonshee)		Reader and interpreter; vernacular clerk or teacher.
Munsiff	...	A subordinate civil judge.
Musaḥrkhāna	...	A rest-house for Indian travellers.
Mutalika	...	An agent.
Mutchalika	...	A deed of agreement binding a person or persons to abide by the conditions and stipulations therein specified.
Mutfarkhat	...	Stipend; pension.
Mutsaddi, Mutsaddy		An agent; an accountant.
Muzrai (Persian Mujara, allowance, deduction).		(i) Signifies grants made for religious or charitable purposes and the upkeep of religious and charitable institutions. (ii) The Muzrai Department is entrusted with the administration of revenues of religious and charitable institutions belonging to the Hindus and Muhammadans, such as, temples and <i>chatrams</i> , or feeding houses, Mutts, Darōgas, Maszids, etc., enjoying land and money ināms and interest from certain deposits of money lodged by the votaries for the fulfilment of certain vows.
Nādāri		Poor; helpless.
Nādiga		Village accountant. With hardly an exception they are of the Brāhmin caste. The office is hereditary in common with those of all the other village officials. In some places they hold land free of rent, and in others on light assessment. In some few places a fixed money allowance is given. In all instances there are certain fixed fees payable to them in money or in kind by the raiyats.
Nādu, Nād	...	A district; a sub-division of a taluk corresponding to a hōbli.
Nagad Gutta	...	Money assessments.
Nagadi	...	Relating to cash transactions or accounts connected with treasury finance.
Nagadiyat	...	Money assessment.
Nakāsh	...	Map or plan.
Nakshe	...	A plan.
Nāla	...	A stream or ravine, a channel.
Nazar	...	Offerings to a sovereign.
Nazarana (Nuzzerāna)		Compulsory offerings.
Namūne	...	A specimen or sample.

Nān Parvarish	...	Allowance to a child till able to provide for himself.
Nānya	...	The change of money, as rupees, annas, etc. ; any coin.
Nāzar	...	Sheriff ; an officer of a court who is charged with serving processes, etc.
Nēgalu	...	A plough.
Nikale	...	Final disposal.
Nimtān	...	Testing of survey.
Nirakh-Nāma	...	Price current of market rates, etc.
Nirakh	...	Rate ; fixed price.
Nirgauti	...	Regulator and distributor of water of a tank or other irrigation work.
Nirsardi	...	Water rate fixed for the use of Government water for cultivation purposes.
Nirāvari	...	Irrigation facility.
Niru Kandāya	...	Water cess.
Nirūpa	...	A written order from a superior.
Nōta	...	Sight ; examination of money.
Nuksān, Luksān	...	Loss ; damage.
Nyāya	...	Justice.
Ōle, wōle	...	A palmyra leaf, or manuscript written on palmyra leaf.
Omēdwār (Hindustāni)	...	Volunteer ; a candidate for employment.
Oopulwut	...	Excess of moisture from surface springs.
Ooturwut	...	A sloping surface.
Paddhati	...	Usage ; custom.
Padi, Palli	...	Land measure—314 square yards for wet and garden land, and 200 square yards for dry land.
Pādya	...	The first day of the bright or dark half of a lunar month.
Pahene sud	...	A survey statement showing old and new survey numbers, names of fields, description of tenure, names of occupants, etc.
Paigast	...	A detective.
Paikari	...	Temporary tenant, or one who resides in one village and cultivates land in another.
Paimāyish	...	Measurement of land.
Pairu	...	Crop.
Paivaste	...	A year or a month before the last.
Paksha Pāta	...	Partiality.
Palla	...	One hundred seers.
Pallikūta	...	A village school.
Pālu	...	Waste land.
Pālu Kandāya	...	A term applied to assessment paid on land left fallow or untilled.
Panchāyit, Panchāyat, Panchāyati, Panchāyattu.	...	A jury ; a popular jury or committee of five persons ; a Court of Arbitration usually consisting of five persons.
Panchami	...	Fifth day of the bright or dark half of a lunar month.

Panchānga	...	A calendar; an almanac.
Panch-Bāb	...	Five items of excise; toddy, liquor, tobacco, ganja and betel.
Panchēru	...	Five seers or 1/8 of a maund.
Pandit (Pundit)	...	A learned man; a physician.
Panju	...	A torch.
Pantōji	...	A village schoolmaster.
Parabhāri	...	Assignment; delivery.
Parambōku	...	Uncultivated land.
Pārkhavane	...	Paying into the treasury the revenue collected by village officers.
Pārpattyagāra Pārvatēgār	...	Manager or supervisor of a <i>chatram</i> or temple.
Parichāraka	...	A Brāhman temple-servant.
Pārikhattu	...	A deed of dissolution of partnership or of parcenership; a written receipt and acquittance.
Pasaraye	...	Market fees.
Pāshāndi	...	A heretic; a schismatic.
Patēla, Patel (Potail)	...	Headman of a village; the head of village police; in some parts of the State, rent-free lands are assigned for their support.
Patna Shetty	...	A title given to the principal men of towns next to the SHETTIES, a SHETTI being in some respects similar to a Mayor and a PATNA SHETTI to an alderman.
Patra	...	A bond.
Pattana, Patna (Putten)	...	A town.
Patte (Putta)	...	A title-deed granted by Government.
Patte	...	Apprehension; detection.
Pattedār	...	A lease-holder.
Patti	...	A list.
Pāvu, Pau	...	One-fourth of a seer.
Pēshkār	...	A revenue officer, next in rank to the Amildar.
Pēshkash (Pēshcush)	...	The fixed payment made by zamindars to Government.
Pēte, Petta	...	Market; a trading town.
Pharār	...	A runaway.
Phasalu	...	Crop.
Phērist	...	An index; a list.
Phidvi	...	Servant.
Phiryād	...	A complaint.
Phod	...	Sub-dividing fields.
Phūtkūl Patrak	...	A detailed statement of occupancies, when two or more are included in one and the same Revenue Survey number, with area and assessment of each.
Phūt Māgani	...	Sub-division of a Māgani.
Pōtgi	...	Yearly remuneration of Patels and Shānbhōgs.
Pōt Pahni	...	An inspection statement like PHANI SUD.
Pramāna	...	Oath.
Prānta, Prāntya	...	Locality.
Prativādi	...	Defendant.

Pubba		An asterism; A rain commencing between, 28th August and 10th September.
Pudavat		Investments, generally of money made by persons for the upkeep or maintenance of temples and other charitable institutions.
Pukka (Pucca)		Brick-built.
Pūjāri		The officiating Brāhman or priest of a temple.
Punarvasu		A rain commencing between 3rd and 16th July. Paddy, cotton, etc., are sown at this season.
Punya		Good lot or fortune.
Pūrvābhādra		A star; A rain commencing between 2nd and 14th March.
Pūrvāshāda		A star; A rain commencing between 26th December and 7th January. Cummin, coriander, tobacco, and other seeds are sown at this time.
Purvānna or Parvāna (Hindustāni)		An order; a grant or letter under royal seal; a letter of authority from an official to his subordinate.
Pushya	...	A star; a rain commencing between 17th and 30th July. Gram and mangoes are sown at this time.
Purōhita	...	A family priest.
Raddi, Reddi	...	A Telugu designation for the head man of a village, the head of a village police.
Raddu	...	In some parts of the State, rent-free lands are assigned for the support of Reddies.
Raft	..	Export.
Rahadāri	..	A passport; a permit.
Raiyat	..	A farmer or an agriculturist.
Raita, Raiyat, Ryot		A cultivator; a farmer.
Raitwāri	..	A term applied to tracts in which the revenue settlement is made by Government Officers with each actual cultivator without the intervention of a third party.
Rājīnāma, Rāzināma		A deed of consent; a compromise; an acquittance; settlement of a dispute; resignation of office.
Rakta Kodagi		Land given free of rent to the family of a person wounded or killed in battle.
Raktavan		An official whose business it is to supply ink.
Rāsi		A heap, generally of corn.
Rāsu		Agricultural cattle.
Rāzi, Rāji		Mutual consent.
Regada		Black cotton soil.
Rēswut		Want of cohesion among the constituent particles of the soil, arising from the presence of fine sand.
Rēvati		A star; a rain in some places commencing between 28th March and 11th April. The land is ploughed at this time.
Risāle		A detachment in the Mysore Horse.

Risāldār	...	Officer commanding a detachment of cavalry troops.
Rivāz	...	An ancient rate of assessment on each particular field ; rate usage.
Rōhini	...	A star ; a rain commencing between 22nd May and 4th June. Paddy, cotton, etc., are sown during this rain.
Rōjināma, Rōju	...	Daily cash account of receipts and disbursements.
Rokka	...	Money ; cash.
Rūbkāri	...	Extract from a resolution or a letter addressed by an equal to an equal.
Ruju	...	Proof ; signature.
Rusum	...	An allowance ; fee.
Rūba-Rūb (Roob Roob)	...	Personally ; in person.
Sabab	...	An excuse ; reason, cause.
Sādilwār	...	Contingent expenses ; usually applied to money allowed for the purchase of stationery.
Sāgu or Sāguvali	...	Cultivation.
Sāguvali Chītu	...	Written permission to cultivate Government land given to a raiyat on his application to take up such land being accepted.
Sāguvalidār	...	Cultivator.
Sāguvali Kattes	...	Bunds (mostly made use of in the Chitaldrug District) intended to intercept and retain the surface drainage of fields, and thus to allow the soil to retain some pasture.
Sāguvali Patrik	...	Rent roll.
Sākshi	...	A witness.
Sāla	...	Debt.
Sālbasa	...	Year after year.
Sāl Jhāda (Saljhāde)	...	Annual return or statement.
Sāmān	...	Baggage ; articles.
Sambala	...	Pay ; salary.
Sammat	...	A sub-division of a taluk, corresponding to a hōbli.
Sammati	...	Consent.
Sampādāno	...	A perquisite ; allowance ; gains not authorized.
Samasthāna	...	A district or territory belonging to a ruling chief ; or a temple ; a State.
Sandāya	...	Repayment.
Sāngada	...	A ferry-boat formed of two Rōnis joined together with a deck or platform upon them.
Sanad, Sunnud	...	A grant ; a diploma ; a charter ; a patent ; a document conveying to an individual employments, titles, privileges, offices, etc., under the seal of the ruling authority ; a certificate or title deed.
Sandadār	...	One who holds a written authority or SANAD from the ruling power to hold land or office.
Sante	...	A fair ; a market-place.
Sante Pasarāyi	...	Market fees.

Sarbarāyi	...	Furnishing supplies.
Sarāfa, Shrōff	...	An examiner and sorter of coins; money changer. An official employed in treasuries to test and count coins and render an account of the revenue, affix his seal to the bags of treasure despatched to the District or Huzur Treasury and be responsible for all deficiencies in the quality of the coin.
Sarhad	...	Boundary limit.
Sarkār, Circār	...	Government.
Sar Amin, Sur Ameen	...	A sub-magistrate.
Sarāsari	...	Average.
Sārāyi	...	Arrack.
Sardār	...	An officer; a European gentleman.
Sarvādhikāri	...	General agent.
Sarvamānya	...	Villages or lands, held free of all demands including sayar, mohatarfa, etc.
Sāvukāra, Sowcār...	...	A rich man, a merchant.
Sawār, Sowār	...	A trooper.
Sāyar	...	Transit duties; miscellaneous revenues.
Savāl	...	(i) Bidding at an auction sale (ii) Question.
Saza	...	Imprisonment.
Sākada	...	Percentage.
Sēr, Seer	...	Grain measure—Rs. 84 in weight, or 1·68 pints. A weight—24 tolas.
Sērvegāra (Sērvegār)	...	A chief herdsman in the Amrut Mahal.
Sētuve	...	A bridge.
Shaka	...	Era; especially of the era of Sālivāhana, commencing A.D. 78.
Shānabhōga, Shānbhōg	...	Village accountant; with hardly an exception, Shānbhōgs are of the Brāhman caste. The office is hereditary in common with all the other village officials. In some places they hold land free of rent, and in others on light assessment. In some few places, a fixed money allowance is given. In all instances, there are certain fixed fees payable to them in money or in kind by the raiyats.
Shanabu	...	Hemp used in making a coarse cloth called gōni.
Shāsana	...	A stone slab or brass or copper plate on which memorial inscriptions, grants to temples, etc., are recorded.
Shēkdār	...	Revenue officer in charge of a hōbli or sub-division of a taluk.
Shēndi	...	Toddy.
Shetti	...	A title borne by Kōmati and Lingāyat merchants.
Shikmi	...	As a revenue term, it applies to a subordinate tenure in which the holder pays his revenue, or his share of it, through some other person to the Government.
Shikmidār	...	A subordinate cultivator.
Shinast (Hindustāni)	...	Impaired; requiring repairs.

Shilku	...	Balance ; remainder.
Shirastedār, Sheristadār		Head of a revenue or judicial office.
Shist (Sistu)	...	The fixed standard rate of land, exclusive of other imposts, assessment of tax. (Sthala rivāz—the ancient rate of assessment on each particular field).
Shivāyi Jama	...	Miscellaneous receipts credited to Government.
Shrāya (spelt also Srāya)		Improvement of land by cultivation. A tenure on progressive rental ; progressive rental for improvement of land, or rent commencing at a low rate and increasing gradually year by year till the maximum limit is attained. Waste lands granted to raiyats undertaking to reclaim it from jungle and bring it under cultivation, upon leases with progressive increasing rents.
Shrōff		See Sarāfa.
Shrōtriyadār		The holder of a village, or a certain extent of land granted on easy rent in perpetuity, or for a limited number of lives (generally as a reward for public service) to Brāhmins only.
Sibbandi	An establishment.
Silēdar, Silahdār, Silladār..		A lancer ; a trooper.
Silsila Banjar	Immemorial waste land.
Sisht-Bāki	A balance of revenue uncollected from the person from whom due, in contradistinction to Dast-bāki, a balance collected but not brought to the account of Government.
Soppina Bettas	...	Lands held free by raiyats to enable them to use the leaves and rotten wood therein for purposes of manuring their garden and rice lands.
Srīmukha	...	A communication received from heads of Mutts.
Subedār, Soobahdār		A provincial governor ; a native collector in charge of a taluk.
Sud	...	A tabular statement.
Suggi	...	Harvest time.
Sukāliga, Sukāligaru		A tribe resembling gipsies who wander about and earn a livelihood as carriers ; sometimes called Brinjaries or Banjaras.
Sulāvani	...	The hearing of a case ; personally explaining a case.
Sunka	...	Toll ; octroi ; custom.
Supāri	...	Arecanut.
Suphardu	...	Possession ; care.
Tābedāri	...	Subordinate service.
Tagāde	...	Importunity in urging the settlement of a claim or payment of a debt ; dunning.
Tagair	...	Dismissal from service.
Taggu	...	Dearness ; high price.
Tahanāma	...	An agreement.

Takāvi (Tuccāvee)	Advance of money made by Government to (i) land owners or cultivators for the improvement of their land, or (ii) poor cultivators by way of assistance to carry on their cultivation. Recoverable advances made to raiyats to enable them to cultivate.
Tākhīt (also Tākīd)	An order or direction issued to subordinates.
Takhta ...	An abstract statement; a summary or total.
Tākīd, Tākhīt ...	See Tākhīt.
Takrār, Takarār	Dispute; disputed, contested case.
Tāku ...	A certain portion of land, generally applied to fields.
Talrāi, Talavāra ...	Village watchman and scout, whose duty is to give information to officers, etc., to guide travellers, etc., his only remuneration being the grant of a small extent of rent-free land. In some villages where there is no Talāri the duties are performed by the Tōti, his deputy.
Talāv ...	Tank.
Talāv Amāni ...	Tank not belonging to any particular village.
Tālūk, Tālūq, Tālook	A division of a district under the management of an Amildar.
Tāmbra Shāsana ...	Grant or inscription engraved on copper-plates.
Tammadi ...	The officiating priest of a pagoda.
Tamsūku ...	A bond; a written document.
Tankasāle ...	A mint.
Tapasini ...	Examination of classers' tests.
Tappāl ...	Post.
Tappe ...	Relay or set of bullocks or bearers posted for travellers.
Tapsil ...	Detail.
Taradūd ...	Adoption of prompt measures.
Tari ...	Wet, <i>i.e.</i> , irrigated land.
Tārīk ...	Date.
Tasdik ...	The annual allowances made by Government to temples, <i>chatrams</i> , etc.
Tāvu ...	A place.
Tazaviz ...	Endeavour; effort.
Teppa ...	A raft.
Tēru ...	An idol car.
Tevari, Tevaru ...	Division between the fields; a border or small bank of grass bounding a field, commonly called bund or bandou.
Thāna, Thāne	A police station.
Tirpu	A decision.
Tirve	Land-tax.
Tola	A rupee weight—1140 part of a pound avoirdupois.
Tōpu	A grove of trees, generally called Tope.
Toreya	A class of bearers.
Tōta	A garden.

Tōti	A menial among the village servants; a deputy talāri, who is employed to watch the crops from the growing crop to the granary.
Tūbu	The sluice of a tank or reservoir.
Tukadi	District.
Udave	Jungly tract fit for coffee plantation, a term used in Nagar and Hassan.
Ukkada (Ookad)	A station at the side of a road where tolls are collected.
Ullame	Land given to a sub-cultivator.
Ullamedār	A sub-cultivator.
Ūligadavaru	Peons.
Umbali	A village or plot of ground free of rent.
Umbalidār	The holder of a rent-free village or land.
Umbli Lands	Inām lands given to persons from whom generally some service, real or nominal, is expected (as indeed was originally the case with nearly every description of Inam).
Umēdwār	(See Omēdwār) A volunteer; a candidate for employment; one who works without pay in a hope of ultimately gaining a situation.
Ūru	A village; a country.
Uttāra, Uddhāra	Remission of land-rent on account of imperfectly ripened crops from inclemency of season and failure of rain. In Nagar, it is used for Ināmti.
Utār Patrika	A survey record or account, showing whether a particular land is entitled to irrigation from a tank or other source.
Vadda, Woddar ...	A tank digger; a worker in stone.
Vādi ...	Plaintiff.
Vahivet ...	Useful procedure.
Vaidya ...	A physician.
Vaja ...	Reduction; deduction.
Vaisākhi Phasal ...	The first crop which is generally reaped in May or June, the rice being sown in December or January.
Vakālat Nāma ...	Power of attorney.
Vakīl ...	An agent; attorney.
Vākmūla, Vānmūla..	A deposition.
Vālaga Uttāra ...	Rent-free land granted to musicians.
Valase ...	Fugitives; people moving in masses from alarm or fear of an invasion.
	Tenure of land, the half of the produce of which is given to the landlord instead of rent.
Vāragāra	A sub-lessee who gives half the produce of the land he cultivates to the owner.
Varāha	The coin called a pagoda.
Vārasdār	Claimant.

Varga, Warg	...	Literally account ; a ledger ; a farm or holding having a separate number in the revenue accounts. There are sometimes two or three or even more holdings in one VARGA.
Varga	...	Holding of raiyats in the Malnād or hilly taluks of the Nagar Division, situated in the plateau of the Western Ghats.
Vargadār	...	A lease-holder (in Nagar) ; in other parts of the province the term means a transferee ; corresponds to Khātedār.
Vargūvargi	...	Transfer.
Vargarūzināma	...	Relinquishment of land in favour of another.
Vartanāna	...	News ; information.
Vartaka	...	A merchant.
Varushāsana	...	Annual allowance.
Vasha	...	Possession ; care ; charge.
Vasūl	...	Collection ; receipts.
Vāyide	...	An instalment ; a term.
Vichārane	...	An inquiry.
Vichalige	..	The sixtieth part of a Ghalige or Indian hour.
Villed-ele, Vilyad-ele	...	Betel-leaf.
Visa	...	A sixteenth part of anything.
Visha-Hāku	...	To poison.
Vivara	...	Particulars.
Vrittidār	...	Proprietor of small grants of land free of rent, or on a light rent, to Brāhmans only.
Vyāpāra	...	Trade.
Vyājya	...	A quarrel ; a law suit.
Walsur	...	Soil with a mixture of sand.
Wasūl Bāki	...	Statement showing full particulars of each occupant's entire holdings under the old and new systems.
Wolāgra	...	Internal ; home produce.
Wola-Sāguvalidār...	...	Sub-cultivator.
Wottu	...	Total.
Yādāst, Yādāstu, Yādi	...	A memorandum.
Yujamāna	...	Master ; lord ; owner ; proprietor ; husband.
Yāla, Yēla	...	An auction.
Yedagai...	...	A member of the left-hand caste ; currier and shoe-maker.
Yele Hambu	...	Betel-vine.
Yadaru Chītu	...	A counterpart agreement ; an engagement given by the tenant of an estate held under lease or mortgage to pay a consideration annually for its occupancy ; also a writing given by the purchaser of land to the proprietor, engaging to give it back on receiving his money again within a stipulated period.

Yēta, Yāta	A lever for raising water from a well; a well from which water is raised by such an instrument. In some places, it is called a pikota.
Zamindāri	A term applied to tracts in which the land is held by Zamindārs.
Zamindār	A land owner.
Zirāti (also spelt Jirāyati)	Agriculture; cultivation; farming.
Zubān (also Jubāni)	Oral, as opposed to written.
Zulum (Hindustāni)	Tyranny; oppression; extortion.



ADDENDA ET CORRIGENDA

<i>Page</i>	<i>Line</i>	<i>For</i>	<i>Read</i>
2	12	Oegan ...	began
9	21	Kālachurya ...	Kalachurya
379	Sub-heading	Condition of finances a the time ...	Condition of finances at the time
491	2	Schawartz ...	Schwartz
735	24—7	Delete these lines.	

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